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THE JOURNAL OF EDUCATIONAL METHOD

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THE NATIONAL CONFERENCE ON EDUCATIONAL METHOD

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EDITORIALLY SPEAKING

SUBJECTS OR PUPILS

The issue that Dr. Courtis presents in his article in this number of the JOURNAL, as he so well says, is fundamental. As its significance becomes clearer, it will undoubtedly divide American educators into two opposing camps, those who are committed to the perpetuation of the school as we have known it and those who would make it over.

The conservatives hope, of course, for improvement both in choice of subject matter and in method of handling it, but in their thought a school will continue to be a place in which to carry forward from day to day a program of "recitations." Pupils will get lessons assigned to them by teachers and will try to show that they have learned the facts, solved the problems, or practiced to attain the skills required. Organized summaries of adult experience will still make up the units of the courses and the ground work of the textbooks. As civilization advances, there will naturally be omissions of some portions of subject matter and additions of others. Increasing knowledge of the mental life of children will lead, also, to more systematic attempts to provide schooling adapted to individuals, especially in regard to the degree of attainment expected. Methods of teaching and of testing will become more and more

effective. In short, the school will gradually be placed upon a scientific basis or, if you prefer, will be standardized.

The progressives expect more sweeping changes. They see at work forces that they believe will ultimately transform the school and make it not only better but radically different. They are prepared to find that the experiments now going on are but the beginnings of a movement that will give us a new type of school, one in which the time-honored recitation will not be much in evidence; where the mere storing up of knowledge and skill against the day of need will be superseded by the gaining of knowledge and skill to meet actual present needs and largely in the process of meeting those needs; and where instead of attempting to take over by reading or listening ready-made organizations of experience, the pupil will have large opportunity to organize experience for himself. In such a school the function of teaching is largely that of guidance; knowledge is prized not as a possession but as a tool; and creativeness rather than conformity is singled out for praise. For such a school the curriculum is regarded as an organized opportunity for educative experience through the learner's own activity, and subjects of study are drawn upon rather than pursued.

Present-day practice is obviously on the side of those who think of a school as a place to present subjects. The forward movement, however, appears to be plainly toward a state in which the pupils to be educated will receive first consideration and subjects will be regarded as possible means, not ends.

THE YEARBOOK OF THE CONFERENCE

The announcement that a committee of the National Conference has in active preparation a yearbook on supervision comes as a partial fulfillment of purposes announced by the Conference some time ago. The chief professional group that has found in the Conference a clearing house and medium of expression has been that composed of supervisors and directors of instruction. In recent years the programs of the Conference have been largely devoted to their interests. The president for the last two years is a director of elementary education and her successor is a college man whose chief contributions have been in this field.

The committee on the yearbook is evidently to function as a fact-finding commission. It will gather the results of such scientific studies as have been made in this field and lay a sound foundation for future investigation. This is greatly to be desired. Supervision as a concept has been narrowly interpreted. It is still too often taken to mean only the visiting of teachers and criticizing of their work. A survey of present practice will undoubtedly show, however, that many able supervisors now organize a comprehensive program of leadership and guidance in which classroom visitation takes its place as but one, and possibly not the most important one, of several agencies. A technique of supervision, freed from mere personal bias and based upon objective data, is in process of development. This proposed yearbook

will doubtless show us what progress has been made in this respect.

THE JOURNAL AND THE NEW SCHOOL YEAR

In order to fit the JOURNAL more perfectly to the needs of its readers, a slight modification of schedule in publication has been decided on. September is a month of change and pressure in the schools. Periodicals that come to the desk at that time are likely to be laid aside and often mislaid. Hence the JOURNAL OF EDUCATIONAL METHOD will appear at the opening of the school year in the form of a double number, planned especially for the period to which it belongs. Thus the JOURNAL will reach its subscribers nine times a year instead of ten.

The size of some of the nine numbers, however, will be increased, so that the total number of pages in each volume will be somewhat larger than heretofore. In this way we will actually give our readers more for their money than we have done and in a way to fit more perfectly into their professional schedule.

Beginning with the September-October number of the new volume, this change will be put into effect. That number will also signalize important changes in editorial policy. Among the features to be added will be that of a survey by a specialist of the progress that has been made during the twelve months preceding in an important aspect of education. The opening survey will deal with language, to be followed by a similar survey of arithmetic. By means of these surveys our readers, especially those who are concerned with making courses of study and selecting textbooks, will be further aided in keeping up with the progress that is being made in adapting the schools more nearly to the needs of the time.

J. F. H.

THE INTEGRATION OF PERSONALITY AND THE SCHOOL CURRICULUM¹

S. A. COURTIS

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If I were an Irishman, I would say the most difficult problem in curriculum construction isn't a problem in curriculum construction at all. It is the problem of translating into classroom practice the ideals embodied in the new curriculum. I am sure every superintendent and supervisor here knows from personal experience that between the vision which leads to the project of curriculum revision and the achievement of the improvement which the new curriculum is designed to bring about, there is a long hard road to be traveled, a road so beset with pitfalls, difficulties, and dangers, that those who grow old in the service tend to become cynical and pessimistic. Many say, "What's the use? You can't change human nature. I should worry. Let nature run its course."

In the end, of course, truth does triumph. If the new ideas have merit, they eventually make their way. The idealism of one generation does become the current practice of the next. Slowly, blindly, with infinite waste, education crawls forward like a snake, twisting and turning from one obstruction to another.

To thoughtful men the waste of such an evolutionary process is exceedingly distressing. In our day humanity is slowly coming to recognize that all conflict, all warfare, is an undesirable method of deciding important issues. The intelligent way is to look for causes of conflict, and to each cause apply its own appropriate remedy.

Now there are those who claim that the inertia of educational agents to progressive ideas is evidence of just plain stupidity, but I hold the opposite view. It seems to me the majority of those in our profession ardently desire progress; that they will take over eagerly any idea or device which appeals to them as likely to bring about progress; that the real cause of the difficulty in bringing about desirable changes is that each individual is so dominated by his own purposes, is so unconscious of the fact that there can be any other purposes in education than those he entertains, that he totally misinterprets all that the other fellow says and does. If your purpose is to drive a nail, you tend to call it stupidity when a friend offers you a saw, never realizing that he may have thought your purpose was to cut the board in two. Interpretation is always completely dominated by purpose, outlook, point of view, and until two individuals purpose to interpret a given set of facts from the same point of view, they inevitably misunderstand each other. Perhaps an illustration may make my meaning clearer.

Suppose that when you left home to take the train for Dallas, you were a little late and decided to take a short cut to the station. Imagine, also, that as you proceed on your way you suddenly realize that you are passing through a tough section of the city and recall that in this section holdups are common. Suppose, fur-

¹ Paper read at Dallas before the Saturday meeting of the National Society for the Study of Education, which had before it the report of the Committee on "The Foundations and Technique of Curriculum Making."

ther, you begin to feel that the bag you are carrying and the direction in which you are walking proclaim you as a prospective traveler with money in your pocket. Soon it will almost seem that the \$200 in your pocket is broadcasting to every bandit in the district, "Come and get me!" Your apprehensions are likely to be proportional to the lateness of the hour and the loneliness of your surroundings. If now you discover that you are being followed, that not very far behind is a suspicious-looking individual slouching along in a very unusual manner, and if when you cross to the other side of the street he crosses also, and if as he passes under an electric light you catch the gleam of metal in his hand, the magnitude of your apprehensions is likely to increase rapidly. What is there in such a situation, I ask you, to suggest to you that the individual is a plain clothes man assigned to the job of protecting unwary travelers on their dangerous way? The greater his efforts to overtake you and discharge his duty of protection, the more certain you are to misinterpret his motives and misunderstand his actions.

Now in education today, a new vision is kindling the enthusiasm and winning the loyalty of many. Some of us entertain purposes and ends which are not the traditional goals. But when we attempt to tell about our work, our words and actions are grossly misinterpreted by those who do not understand our change in purpose.

From my point of view the yearbook committee has rendered an invaluable service in preparing and publishing the composite statement on the "Foundations of Curriculum Making." Under Rugg's persuasive leadership, men of widely dif-

ferent purposes have been induced to ignore their differences and to describe in a remarkably lucid manner the trends of educational evolution. Education, they agree, is moving "from"—"to"—. The various individuals do not agree as to what the movement means, but as to the facts themselves and as to the general nature of the changes which have taken place, they are in substantial agreement. Their statement makes it possible for each one of you to take two important steps: (1) to measure your own position and see just where you stand between the conservative² Judd, the great high priest of those who minimize the importance of individual differences and magnify in the traditional way the intrinsic value of subject matter, and the radical³ Kilpatrick, the inspired prophet of a new day; and (2) to decide intelligently whether in your efforts at curriculum revision you will go with the evolutionary tide or against it.

However, in my judgment, the composite statement has one fundamental defect. It does not state explicitly that the first step in curriculum construction should be a review of the existing philosophies of education and the adoption of one of them as the basis upon which revision is to be made. Many persons do not seem to realize that in the last analysis the selection of a philosophy is always a matter of intuitive judgment. One can array with scientific care the evidence for and against any given philosophy, but selection implies evaluation and in the final act of evaluation and choice, science is of no service. It is the supreme function of personality to evaluate and to act distinctively, and it is the glory of democracy that each man has the right to be true to his innermost conviction.

² The use of the adjective is justified by Judd's own recognition that the position he holds is one from which the majority have already moved. See Part II of the Twenty-sixth Yearbook, page 116, first sentence.

³ The use of the adjective is justified by Kilpatrick's own recognition that the position he holds is one to which the majority have not yet moved. *Ibid.*, page 119, first paragraph.

tions. If we are conscious of the subjective nature of the processes of selection, we shall be less certain that we have chosen wisely, more ready to try to understand the choices made by the other fellow.

The danger in not making it plain that choice of a philosophy is fundamental lies in the fact that, once a choice has been made, the situation changes. The efficiency with which a given means contributes to a given end can be precisely determined by the methods of science. Many consider that when they have proved a given means is the most efficient for the achievement of an adopted end, they have also proved that the end itself is the best that can be adopted. This by no means follows. My thesis is that here are two problems, not one; that the continuous appraisal and improvement of the ends adopted as goals of educational endeavor are of even greater importance than the continuous appraisal and improvement of the means by which the adopted ends are achieved.

The group that is articulate through me tonight claims that the new education is new just because it shifts the emphasis in education to a new goal. That goal some of us like to phrase as the "Integration of Personality." By that we mean to indicate that we regard personality as the latest and highest product of creative evolution, a product of such supreme worth that all else should be subordinated to it. We believe that certain experiences tend to build up in an individual a strong, forceful personality, and that certain other experiences operate to restrict or even prevent the growth of personality; that it is the duty of the school to supply experiences which facilitate growth of personality rather than those which inhibit it. If we wish to learn what types of experiences contribute to the integration of personality, all we need to do is to select a superior personality like Lincoln or

Roosevelt and see what its distinctive characteristics are.

My analysis yields "ability to see problems" as the first element to the building up of which attention must be given. Lincoln's "of the people, by the people, for the people" represents a vision of coöperative living which millions in this country have not yet begun to entertain. Roosevelt, by his interpretation of our social problems, has opened the eyes of thousands to potentialities they never would have seen by themselves. To satisfy us, therefore, the curriculum must be of such a character that the children will be led by force of circumstances to recognize problems as they occur in their natural setting, and will become skillful in recognizing them. The first great objective at which we aim is "vision."

A great personality does not merely dream dreams and see visions. He purposes to bring his dreams to pass. He has large powers of initiation and self-direction. He doesn't wait for someone to tell him what to do. He is equipped with a self-starter and he keeps it in working order. To satisfy us, therefore, the new curriculum must provide specific opportunities for children to form purposes, to initiate action, to will, to plan, and to grow in their power to carry on these most important activities effectively.

A great personality does more than initiate activities; he stays by them and follows them through to achievement. He has great powers of constructive criticism and uses them constantly. He continually compares achievement with goal and judges of his success. He openmindedly re-initiates, and re-plans, as may be necessary, until achievement is reached. All great personalities are "go-getters"; they "deliver the goods." We have many slang expressions to indicate that persistence and efficiency are important elements of suc-

cess. To satisfy us, therefore, the new curriculum must consist of a "matrix of situations which grip the learners"—which are to them so vital in their appeal, so worth while in terms of immediate benefits, that the children will be stimulated to persistent effort and to efficient achievement.

Achievement is not possible, however, without coördination of conflicting impulses, desires, and ideas. A great personality is always a disciplined personality, but the discipline is self-imposed. To satisfy our purpose, therefore, the new curriculum must deliberately provide opportunity for self-government and self-control.

Lastly, a great personality is socially-minded. He appreciates the common people and recognizes his relationship to all humanity. He subordinates egotistic tendencies to the common good, and finds his greatest joy in coöperation with others in the solution of common problems.

It is the contention of those who adopt integration of personality as their goal, that the curriculum should be written in terms of the goals—vision, self-direction, self-appraisal, self-control, and coöperation—and these only. That is, the various types of subject matter are to be regarded as tools and subordinated to the purposes for which they are used.

On the train coming down to Dallas, one of the men, seeing me at work on this paper, said, "Give them plenty of apple sauce; that's what they'll call it anyway." But I protest that "integration of personality" is not apple sauce. It serves as a most effective guide for curriculum revision and for direction of the procedures by which the curriculum once constructed is put into effect.

For instance, not long ago I visited a grade room teacher. A few minutes after I entered the room, she said, "Boys and girls, put your arithmetics in your desks.

Take out your spellers, your pens, and your paper, and get ready for a test in spelling." There were approximately sixty children in the room, but the order was perfect. The children did exactly as they were told, and their movements were almost as perfectly synchronized as the evolutions of Knight Templars on parade.

In the conference that followed the lesson, I asked the teacher whether or not she valued ability to direct their own affairs in children. She responded *most* emphatically, "Certainly." I then asked, "Did you not order the children to put away their arithmetics and take out their spellers?" She reluctantly admitted she did. My next question was, "Could you not devise a way of changing from arithmetic to spelling which would provide the children with an opportunity to exercise self-direction?" After a moment's reflection she replied, "Why, yes, I suppose if I merely announced that the time for spelling had arrived, the children would have put away their arithmetics and taken out their spellers of themselves. I'll try it tomorrow."

I countered with, "You assigned the lesson in spelling. According to your own test, many of the children had no need to study those words. Are they not capable of assigning their own lessons, and could they not choose the words they need to study better than you can?"

This question, however, called out emphatic protests. She had to cover the course of study. The children didn't know enough to assign their own lessons. There would be terrible disorder and inefficiency if each child were working on a different set of words. It was hard enough to keep sixty children in order when all were working on the same lesson. It would be quite impossible for her to teach under such conditions.

By way of reply, I smiled at her and

said, "You seem to me to be saying that your children are lacking in self-control, self-appraisal, and ability to coöperate as well as in self-direction, and that at present you aren't making any effort to develop these abilities in them. Don't you think you ought to?" The teacher looked at me thoughtfully while she pondered the possibilities. It was several minutes before she spoke and then all she said was, "What about the course of study?"

Fortunately I was able to answer, "The superintendent is extremely anxious to find out whether or not, if you try, you can develop these essential qualities to a greater degree than we have in the past. He has selected you as an able teacher who will be able to do it if anybody can. He will free you from all obligation to teach spelling. In fact you are not to think about spelling at all. You are to try to give these children a vision of themselves as potential conquerors of their spelling difficulties. You are to stimulate them to activities which will give them opportunities for the exercise of self-direction, self-appraisal, self-control, and coöperation. You are to work just as hard to teach these five things as you have been in teaching spelling. Are you willing to adopt these *new purposes* as an experiment?"

"I'd try it in a minute," the teacher responded, "if it weren't for the size of the room. Do you really think that kind of work is possible with sixty children?"

"Certainly," I replied. "Not all your children need a nurse girl. How many are there you can trust to manage themselves?" The teacher thought for a moment and answered, "Twenty-five, and there are many more that I believe would quickly qualify for self-management with a little training. Thank you. I'll be very glad to try the experiment."

Now, is that kind of transformation of a

teacher's purposes apple sauce? Two months later I had the pleasure of taking the superintendent into that room as an illustration of what happens when a teacher discards the traditional subject matter objectives and makes "integration of personality" her goal. The number of children in the dependent group had been reduced to seven or eight. The work of the remaining children had been completely individualized. They were working in groups of four or five on some ten different lessons. They were setting their own lessons, marking their own papers, and co-operating with each other. The teacher's work had been enormously reduced in amount and vastly improved in character. Her time was given almost wholly to assisting children in response to their requests. The children, too, had a totally different attitude toward their work. They were engaged in a vital activity of self-improvement, and the work was regarded by them as their own, not the teacher's.

Nevertheless, such specific subject matter activity is transitional in character. In the language of the general statement,⁴ education today is moving from a curriculum "conceived primarily as formal subject matter set-out-to-be-learned without adequate relation to life" toward a curriculum "conceived in terms of a succession of experiences and enterprises having a maximum of lifelikeness for the learner. It is the task of the teacher and the curriculum maker to select and organize materials which will give the learner that development most helpful in meeting and controlling life situations. The method by which the learner works out these experiences, enterprises, exercises should be such as calls for a maximal self-direction, assumption of responsibility, of exercise of choice in terms of life values. No formulated scheme of assimilation, made in

⁴ Selected sentences, *Ibid.*, page 17.

advance and handed out complete by the curriculum maker, can of itself be sufficient. To be truly functional, the process of assimilation must be the pupil's own." Judd comments on this section as follows:⁵

"There is some danger that Section VI will be accepted by certain persons whose tendencies are toward happy-go-lucky picnicking as a substitute for study as absolution for their sins. The present writer takes the opportunity to express the view which he believes the section to set forth, that new syntheses of knowledge are demanded, but that knowledge will always have to be systematized and arranged in coherent subjects. The emphasis is on organization. The statement is not an invitation to plunge into intellectual chaos, or to follow the caprice of untrained or immature minds."

He also makes the emphatic prophecy, "The present primary curriculum is in no sense of the word likely to go on the scrap heap." If I accepted Judd's purposes I could not escape the logic of his position. But I have a different purpose, and logic leads me to exactly the opposite conclusion. In my judgment the greatest single obstacle to the vitalization of education is the age-long, present-day emphasis upon acquisition of knowledge and the present organization of knowledge in subject matter divisions. The issue is clear: shall we teach subjects or teach children? Integration of personality demands that we teach children, and for that purpose a new curriculum of a different type is demanded.

As an illustration of how completely failure to recognize a change in purpose leads to misunderstanding, it is only necessary to quote Judd's statements of what the acceptance of the ideas embodied in the preceding paragraph imply. I, too, do not believe that "mastery of language and

number and the other instruments of civilized life is possible through any ripening of instinctive powers, if ripening means unaided, unsocial growth." I, too, believe that "civilization is a social product," that "no child can evolve the English language." I, too, hold that "the alphabet, the printed page, Arabic numerals, punctuality, the laws of property right are all perfectly respectable and valuable members of the social inheritance," and that schools have been created by society to insure the efficient transmission of these valuable accumulations of social life to the oncoming generation. I am not at all "apologetic" for them. I do not think that "books and libraries and multiplication can be dispensed with." I do not contemplate the wholesale transformation of natural law to suit individual's tastes. I certainly have no intention of "abandoning all systematic social life." I have given the major part of my professional career to the careful, minute, scientific study and organization of curriculum materials, and am planning to continue to do so throughout the remainder of my working life. I also am "highly skeptical about the possibility of this reorganization resulting from scattered and unrelated thinking and experimentation." Further, I earn my daily bread by directing the reorganization of courses of study and the modification of teaching procedures to bring about greater efficiency in the learning process. Is it not clear, then, that if in addition to all the foregoing, I still believe in "integration of personality" and the complete reorganization of the curriculum in terms of purposes and activities instead of in subject matter divisions, I must be moved by considerations which Judd has not recognized, and that consequently all his comments and criticisms, made from a different point of view, do not in any way apply?

⁵ Selected sentences, *Ibid.*, pages 113-117.

Such evident misunderstandings serve to emphasize the importance of the point I am trying to make. There are two problems here, whereas Judd sees only one. Today very many persons are in perfect agreement with the conservative position on one of these problems, but seemingly in complete opposition to those who have not recognized the shift in emphasis that has taken place with respect to the second problem, namely, the choice of basic philosophy. We of the radical wing of the educational group believe that the goal of life, as well as of education, is the development and release of those peculiar manifestations which we summarize by the word "personality." We respect personality so much that we are afraid that when we restrict or control its development in any way it may be harmful. In contrast with the conservative group, which does not hesitate to impose on children adult forms of thought and living, we seek to serve the children by ministering to their felt needs. We are dissatisfied with our present civilization and believe both that it can be improved and that great improvement may be made by the next generation. We aim to utilize to the utmost every bit of scientific knowledge about subject matter and methods of organization, but when we have made our best preparation, we accept as a check on the validity of our thoughts and actions the appeal which our prepared materials make to the child. If they serve a real need in the child's present life, if he accepts them eagerly and gratefully as helpful, if in the use of the material and opportunities we provide, his "nature unfolds"⁶ and he becomes more mature, more free, more creative, more an able conqueror of nature through intelligent conformity to nature's laws, we know that our men-

tal processes have been correct. If, however, we are unable to "sell" our material to the child and can secure its assimilation only through some form of compulsion however disguised, we frankly own that our curriculum revision efforts have failed and we begin our experimentation and revision all over again. The personalities of children thus become the supreme criterion in our thinking, the source of our standards of value. Our aim is to transmit to children as efficiently as possible all the wisdom of the race, but to do it by methods which will not only leave the child free to improve the social inheritance by the contributions of his living, but develop in him the desire to make such contributions.

If I were to summarize in a single sentence the difference for practical affairs in the two viewpoints, I should say that the radical wing wishes the curriculum to be scientifically organized in terms of child nature, while the conservative wing organizes subject matter in terms of the logical relations within the subject matter itself. The radical wing emphasizes methods of teaching, and judges success in terms of the character of the child, the purposes he entertains, and his efficiency in achieving his purposes. The extremists of the conservative wing, on the other hand, regard subject matter achievement as an adequate measure of the efficiency of teaching. Judd nowhere in his statements discusses the teaching procedures by which the subject matter aims he advocates are to be brought about. Kilpatrick discusses both the effects to be produced in the child and the procedures by which these effects are to be achieved.⁷ From one point of view it may truly be said that both Judd and Kilpatrick are working toward exactly the same ends; that it is all a matter of

⁶ *Ibid.*, page 115, line 3.

⁷ *Ibid.*, page 122.

words. From another point of view it is evident that they differ radically. The question which each reader of the yearbook must decide for himself is which pattern of thinking and acting he will follow.

The point of my paper is that since the individual statements of the yearbook prove that there are alternative ways of thinking and acting, each one of us, Judd and Kilpatrick included, is obligated to put *both* theories to the test of actual trial, and such a thorough trial that it would be acceptable to the other fellow. The danger is that we shall allow ourselves to become closed-minded through personal admiration of a great leader, loyalty to a cause or slogan, or respect for the dogmatic statement of authority and current practice.

Horn has raised another issue upon which I wish to comment. He warns superintendents to proceed slowly, very slowly, in abandoning subject matter divisions, and depending wholly upon a new activity curriculum. Kilpatrick voices much the same thought. He says, "I should oppose to the utmost having all the schools in the country suddenly shift tomorrow to that actual basis (an activity curriculum.)"⁸ On this matter all parties are in complete agreement. But whereas the extreme conservatives proclaim with finality that the radical view is untenable, and the centerists that it is dangerous, the radicals hold it as a guide to experimentation. In this connection, the writer suggests that the thoughtful reader classify the individual statements in the yearbook as to radicalism, reclassify them as to open-minded, experimental attitude, and then correlate the two

⁸ *Ibid.*, 127.

rankings. Certainly improvement will never be brought about if someone does not vision a better day and pay the price of progress. For the present all agree change should be attempted within subject matter divisions, but the evolutionary tendency in my judgment points clearly to the ultimate organization of the curriculum on an activity basis, and no one should hesitate to move experimentally in that direction as need arises simply because "it never has been done."

In one particular, a revolution could be achieved tomorrow without plunging the country into the chaos which all agree would be undesirable; teachers could have greater respect for the personalities of children, greater will to serve them, greater vision of the schoolroom as a democratic community, greater horror of exerting autocratic "master and slave" domination in teaching. This alone would bring about a great transformation of method even within the formal subject matter organization. This also is one of the most precious results of the adoption of "integration of personality" as an aim.

To bring about the new education and an activity curriculum, the progressive wing of the educational party has pledged whatever of talent and opportunity it possesses. We ask you, therefore, to read again the statement of trends by the committee, to consider well both which way education is moving and what such movement means, then to decide what type of influence you yourself will exert in your curriculum revision work. We believe that eventually you will come our way. Why not begin today?

THE DIAGNOSIS AND GUIDANCE OF TEACHING

WILLIAM L. WRINKLE

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A realization of the ultimate aim of any program of supervision, the increased effectiveness of the education of our youth, is attainable through the improvement of the quality of instruction which the boys and girls of our schools receive. The fundamental objective of supervision must necessarily be that of raising the levels of teaching efficiency through the improvement of the work of the teacher.

While it is not the purpose of this article to advance arguments in support of the idea of supervision, but rather to present a means to a more effective type of supervision, it is essential that there be a clear understanding of the need for more effective supervision than is in general evidence today.

The fact that the teaching personnel of our school systems is subject to constant change, combined with the astonishing lack of professional preparation on the part of the vast majority of the teachers in our public school systems, is overwhelming evidence of the inability of the schools to furnish the high quality of teaching which the situation justly warrants.

A study of the progress of many who have received professional training in teachers' colleges and normal schools will reveal that their preparation has served almost exclusively the immediate purpose of developing them to an acceptable level of teaching efficiency. The importance of developing the teacher to the level where she is able to meet satisfactorily the demands of the public schools must not be minimized. However, in addition to this immediate objective of teacher train-

ing, the development of ability in self-criticism and a favorable attitude toward supervision is absolutely essential. This second phase of the preparation of the teacher merits serious consideration. The duty of the professional school does not lie solely in preparing the teacher to meet satisfactorily the immediate demands of the public school system. It goes further than that. The duty must be extended to include the equipping of the teacher with such attitudes and abilities as may enable her to make constant growth in the profession.

The problem of so equipping the teacher as to enable her to grow professionally is essentially a problem of the training school in our teacher-training institutions. To the greater number of teachers graduation from the professional school marks the end of their teaching under effective supervision. The truth of the statement becomes evident when it is understood that any organized plan of supervision providing for special supervisors is confined to only the larger school systems in cities of considerable size. Below schools of that class the work of supervision is added to the duties of the superintendent and the supervising principal. In our village and rural schools practically no attempt is made to supervise the work of the individual teacher. Since relatively few teachers continue to work under effective supervisory guidance, the level of efficiency to which they have developed during their training period will vary only slightly as they become more experienced. Rather they may tend to become rooted at that particular level, which although far in advance of the untrained

teacher's efficiency level, is not a satisfactory condition. Improvement, if there is to be such, in most cases must be the product of critical analysis by the teacher of her own activity, followed by correct remedial measures. The obligation of developing this ability is essentially a duty of the training school. In the teacher, then, as a part of her professional preparation, should be developed an attitude of critical self-analysis in relation to every phase of her work. She must also have a knowledge of corrective measures to be utilized in securing more effective results if her efforts are to show increased efficiency.

While the development of this attitude of critical self-analysis is a major problem of the training teacher whose duty it is in our teacher training institutions to prepare teachers for the public school systems, it is no less a problem of supervision in the public school systems. Any solution or partial solution of this problem of the training teacher in his work with the beginning teacher is undoubtedly equally capable of application by the public school supervisor in an effort to bring higher standards of achievement to the efforts of the experienced teachers.

The work of the supervisor, to be effective, involves not one but several vitally important factors. The supervisor, as the name indicates (*super*, over; *visum*, to see), must oversee. The primary requisite of the successful supervisor is ability to observe classroom activity intelligently—to see the activity in all its phases, to comprehend in the situation what is being done and what is not being done. Not only must he be able to view the activity from its various angles and have a realization, an awareness, of the positive and negative influences as they appear in the situation, but he must also be able to diagnose the situation and criticize constructively in the in-

terest of improvement in the work of the teacher. Since criticism involves not only the supervisor but the teacher as well, it is of prime importance that the attitude of the teacher be such as may enable the supervisor to lead the teacher to an awareness of her own weaknesses. The task of the supervisor is one of seeing, understanding, diagnosing, and bringing the teacher to an awareness and an evaluation of her work, as the supervisor has seen it.

Too frequently supervisors have not a clear understanding of the facts essential to an adequate diagnosis of the teaching activity. Many not only lack the knowledge of what to look for in supervising the work of the teacher, but they do not know what to say to bring about a realization on the part of the teacher of the elements of the activity capable of improvement and the corresponding corrective measures. Too often the supervisor in observing the teaching activity may have a limited vision—may be unaware of the total activity which is going on before him. Usually the superficial or the very evident phases of the work are grasped and the more minute details of the activity which become evident upon analysis are passed by without his awareness of their presence.

The supervisor, in order to effectively look into the teaching activity, must be able to withhold the superficial and the very evident from filling his vision to the exclusion of all else. He must be aware of the teacher and pupil activity in all its detail if he is to work to the improvement of the efforts of the teacher. No less important than being able to view the activity in all its phases is the ability to diagnose and to bring about on the part of the teacher an evaluation of her effort and achievement, with an understanding of its excellences and weaknesses, and to take corrective steps for the remedying of those phases of the work in which the teacher is

weak. Without analytical ability, the needed factors of diagnosis and remedial measures must also be lacking. Both the supervisor and the teacher must have a common understanding of the standards by which the teaching activity may be evaluated. With these standards as a criteria for evaluating the quality of instruction, they would then be able to meet on a common ground where the teacher would be able to appreciate criticism and later to work intelligently and effectively in the interests of improvement.

Many phases of the activity of the classroom, regardless of quality, are common to the act of teaching wherever it may be found. These definite elements, if determined and embodied in a practical usable device, would thus become a guidance to the activity of the teacher, a criteria by which the supervisor might objectively evaluate the quality of the work of the teacher, and a means of directing the teacher along lines of advancement to higher levels of teaching efficiency.

The criticism of any such group of common evidences of excellences and weaknesses in the teaching activity, when reduced to specific, definite, and objective items, is quite apparent. Teaching is a complex activity into which enter many elements. Such is the nature of the activity, and an analysis of a highly detailed and involved activity cannot be expressed in a few statements. Failure to recognize this fact has made many rating cards and similar devices practically incapable of satisfactory application. There may be as many interpretations of "Did the activity represent a true social situation?" as there may be interpreters, depending upon their ability to read meaning into the phrase; but there could be little variation among different persons in the interpretation of such questions as, "Did the pupils respect the opinion of others? Were they able to

converse effectively? Did they work cooperatively?" Only upon analysis of a true social situation does the original question take on significant meaning. The simplicity of application, the understandable-ness and the effectiveness of the objective method as compared with the subjective method, leaves foundation for no question as to its superiority over any method which places great dependence in individual interpretations.

The selection of items inclusive of the common excellences and weaknesses of the teaching activity, yet eliminating those of relatively minor importance, involves by no means a small task of investigation, evaluation, and constant revision based upon application. In selecting such criteria various sources may be drawn upon: first, research into the subject matter of the pre-teaching courses to determine elements of strong and weak teaching to be used or avoided, the application of laws of learning, etc.; second, an analysis of the work of the strong teacher to determine excellences; third, an analysis of poor teaching activity to determine weaknesses; fourth, a thorough evaluation of the elements, thus secured, by teachers and supervisors of experience, for the purpose of eliminating the relatively less important items; and, fifth, further revision—elimination and addition of items as their worth or need would appear in their application in the actual work of supervision. While this procedure is by no means exhaustive of all possible sources, it might be considered sufficiently general and reliable to be acceptable as a means of determining a working list of standards for the guidance of teaching.

In any teaching situation three essential elements are ever present—the pupil, the teacher, and the physical setting. In the teaching activity there are two major factors—the attitude and the activity. Any

adequate evaluation of the work of the teacher must take into consideration these essential phases of the situation which, for convenience in classification, may be grouped into three main classes:

1. Classroom organization and management.
2. The personality of the teacher.
3. The technique.

The first two groups of this classification may be considered constants. Regardless of the nature of the subject matter involved, whether it be an industrial art or a social science, the organization and management of the situation and the personality of the teacher may be judged by the same standards. However, variation is present in regard to technique. While there is perhaps no wide divergence in the greater mass of elements, each subject of the curriculum may have certain elements especially peculiar to that subject. This condition becomes obvious if an attempt is made to evaluate the teaching of music by the standards wholly acceptable in evaluating the teaching of the manual arts. It is readily seen that the differences present in the teaching of English and history are far less than in the case just cited, where there is wide divergence. Therefore, any set of standards for evaluating the quality of instruction as a device for diagnosis and guidance should include those items which are common to the teaching activity in the major departments of the curriculum and eliminate items capable of relatively few applications.

The remainder of this consideration will deal specifically with (1) the presentation of a device which has proven effective in the diagnosis and guidance of student teaching at Teachers College High School, the Secondary Training School of Colorado State Teachers College, and (2) how it is utilized in the interest of a more effective type of supervision in the training

of beginning teachers. This rather lengthy introduction has been given that the reader may critically view the device as an aid in supervision with respect to the need for a more effective type of supervision, and the necessity of creating in the prospective teacher an attitude of critical self-analysis which is so essential if the quality of the instruction which our youth is to receive is to show advancement to constantly higher levels of teaching efficiency.

STANDARDS FOR EVALUATING THE QUALITY OF INSTRUCTION—AN AID IN THE DIAGNOSIS AND GUIDANCE OF TEACHING

Teachers College High School
Department of Training Schools
Colorado State Teachers College

A. Classroom organization and management.

I. Physical conditions.

- . . . 1. Is room properly ventilated, heated, and lighted?
- . . . 2. Are floors and blackboards clean?
- . . . 3. Is equipment neatly arranged and properly cared for?
- . . . 4. Is unnecessary material removed from desks?
- . . . 5. Is excess clothing removed?
- . . . 6. Is pupil posture conducive to good effort?

II. Handling of material.

- . . . 1. Are maps, charts, etc., placed where they can be seen?
- . . . 2. Are reference materials conveniently available?
- . . . 3. Is material for use during period ready when period begins?
- . . . 4. Are books, papers, etc., passed and collected with economy of time?
- . . . 5. Do pupils handle material quietly and carefully?
- . . . 6. Is material to be copied written on board before period begins, or planned for so that no time is wasted?

III. Management. Does the teacher

- . . . 1. Decide quickly and act promptly?
- . . . 2. Check attendance with economy of time?
- . . . 3. Begin and close class period promptly on schedule?
- . . . 4. Have control of the situation at all times?
- . . . 5. Have attention of all in giving directions, etc.?
- . . . 6. See that pupils close all books unless otherwise directed?
- . . . 7. Avoid general discussion of problems of only individual interest?
- . . . 8. Give individual aid without disturbing others?
- . . . 9. Show regard for high standards of work and good order?
- . . . 10. Discriminate between activity essentials and non-essentials?
- . . . 11. Correct faults by commending virtues?
- . . . 12. Utilize pupil aid in management?
- . . . 13. Effectively organize and conduct group work?

B. Personality of the teacher.

I. Personal appearance. Does the teacher

- . . . 1. Display model personal habits?
- . . . 2. Show moderation and good taste in dress?
- . . . 3. Have good standing, walking, and sitting posture?

II. Personal traits. Is the teacher

- . . . 1. Sincere and straight forward?
- . . . 2. Natural and self-reliant?
- . . . 3. Courteous and considerate?
- . . . 4. Sympathetic and tolerant?
- . . . 5. Cheerful and optimistic?
- . . . 6. Imaginative?
- . . . 7. Does the teacher have a sense of humor?
- . . . 8. Does the teacher use tact and good judgment?

III. Voice. Does the teacher

- . . . 1. Enunciate clearly and pitch voice properly?
- . . . 2. Speak slowly and loudly enough for all to follow?

- . . . 3. Indicate by the voice the close of sentences, etc.?
- . . . 4. Have a pleasing voice?

C. Technique.

I. Preparation. Does the teacher

- . . . 1. Have a thorough knowledge of the subject matter?
- . . . 2. Show good organization of subject matter?
- . . . 3. Show regard for relative values in subject matter?
- . . . 4. Correlate the work with other subjects?
- . . . 5. Plan her work well in advance?
- . . . 6. Meet requirements promptly?

II. Approach.

- . . . 1. Does the approach to the subject create a feeling of need for and a desire to know about it?
- . . . 2. Is the approach based upon previously acquired background?
- . . . 3. Does the approach present a difficulty which arouses purposeful activity?

III. Assignment.

- . . . 1. Is the assignment related to past and present activity?
- . . . 2. Are pupils made aware of its relationship to the unit of which it is a part?
- . . . 3. Do the pupils understand what is expected of them?
- . . . 4. Does the assignment show careful organization for pupil attack?
- . . . 5. Does the assignment involve thought as well as purely objective questions?
- . . . 6. Is the setting in which the problem is presented interest-evoking?
- . . . 7. Is the assignment made at the proper place in the period?
- . . . 8. Is interest stimulated by giving pupils a voice in planning?
- . . . 9. Does the teacher follow up assignments to see that requirements are met?

IV. Development.

- . . . 1. Is activity adapted to pupil abilities and interests?

- . . . 2. Is the aim evident in the activity?
- . . . 3. Is problem-solving activity in evidence?
- . . . 4. Are reflective thinking situations set up?
- . . . 5. Is variety in procedure used to increase interest?
- . . . 6. Is a sufficient number of sense relationships established in developing concepts?
- . . . 7. Is adequate provision made for the formation of bonds between verbal expressions and their corresponding symbols?
Are the pupils encouraged
- . . . 8. To evaluate and express judgments?
- . . . 9. To draw comparisons and make contrasts?
- . . . 10. To develop a sense of chronological relationships?
- . . . 11. To develop a sense of place relationships?
- . . . 12. To develop a sense of causal relationships?
- . . . 13. To reach conclusions only on basis of considerable evidence?
- . . . 14. To take stock of their knowledge which may be useful in solving their problems?
- . . . 15. To discover new problems and relationships?

V. Provisions for strengthening bonds. Does the teacher

- . . . 1. Provide for sufficient drill following the development of a fact or process?
- . . . 2. Stimulate the application of newly acquired knowledge?
- . . . 3. Provide for the recall and exercise of bonds at properly regulated intervals?

VI. Provisions for individual differences. Does the teacher

- . . . 1. Show ability in the analysis of individual abilities?
- . . . 2. Make application of such knowledge in the activity?
- . . . 3. Avoid permitting the better students to do all the work?

- . . . 4. Attempt to bring each pupil into the activity?
- . . . 5. Plan so that each pupil is kept working up to capacity?
- . . . 6. Give individual attention and assistance as needed?

VII. Devices. Does the teacher

- . . . 1. Show originality in the use of devices?
- . . . 2. Use devices with maximum benefit at minimum cost?
- . . . 3. Employ graphic representation wherever profitable?
- . . . 4. Encourage pupils to use graphic representation?
- . . . 5. Make use of available illustrative material?
- . . . 6. Use the devices as a means, never as an end?

VIII. Questions.

- . . . 1. Are "yes" and "no" questions generally avoided?
- . . . 2. Are questions suggesting answers avoided?
- . . . 3. Are questions clear and easily understood?
- . . . 4. Are questions breaking subject matter into fragmentary units avoided?
- . . . 5. Are thought-provoking questions used?
- . . . 6. Do questions lead in the direction of the aim?
Does the teacher
- . . . 7. Avoid repetition of questions?
- . . . 8. Direct the question to the class?
- . . . 9. State the question before naming the pupil to recite?
- . . . 10. Give the pupils an opportunity to answer pupil questions?
- . . . 11. Avoid use of repeated phrases, such as "does it not," etc.?

IX. Answers. Does the teacher

- . . . 1. Avoid repeating answers?
- . . . 2. Avoid repeated use of terms of approval, such as "all right," etc.?
- . . . 3. Allow time for thinking before calling for a response?

- . . . 4. Refuse to pass by indefinite or uncertain responses?
- . . . 5. Insist on recitation to the class?
- . . . 6. Insist that pupils speak loudly enough for all to hear?

X. Expression.

- . . . 1. Is correct English used by pupils?
- . . . 2. Is correct English used by teacher?
- . . . 3. Are errors in English corrected?
- . . . 4. Is the written work of pupil and teacher easily readable?
Does the teacher
- . . . 5. Have a good speaking vocabulary?
- . . . 6. Make definite efforts to increase and refine pupil vocabularies?
- . . . 7. Encourage variety in the form of expression—oral, written, graphic, etc.?

XI. Achievement.

a. Pupil achievement. Do the pupils show

- . . . 1. Efficient and economical study habits in directed and independent study?
- . . . 2. Habits of use of reference and supplementary materials?
- . . . 3. Interest in current daily problems?
Do the pupils show evidences of such social qualities as
- . . . 4. Ability to work coöperatively?
- . . . 5. Ability to converse freely and effectively?
- . . . 6. To respect rights and opinions of others?
- . . . 7. To offer criticisms and suggestions tactfully?
- . . . 8. To sacrifice personal desires for good of group?
- . . . 9. To share responsibility willingly?
- . . . 10. To maintain a scientific attitude?

b. Teacher achievement. Does the teacher

- . . . 1. Stress the attainment of habits, attitudes, appreciations and skills more than the acquisition of subject matter?
- . . . 2. Make the pupil the center of interest and activity?
- . . . 3. Have the friendship and good will of the pupils?
- . . . 4. Take a personal interest in each pupil?

- . . . 5. Show skill in the application of laws of learning?
- . . . 6. Guide rather than dominate?
- . . . 7. Make proper recognition of pupil effort?
- . . . 8. Know proper standards of attainment of pupils of age-grade involved?
- . . . 9. Accomplish the aim or purpose of the activity?
- . . . 10. Show evidence of a scientific attitude?
- . . . 11. Follow suggestions, correct errors, etc.?
- . . . 12. Show evidence of a desire for professional growth?
- . . . 13. Show ability in self-criticism?
Is the teacher
- . . . 14. Able to test objectively pupil progress?
- . . . 15. Able to evaluate and grade the work of the pupil?
- . . . 16. Loyal to the organization?
- . . . 17. Willing to assist in activities apart from distinct duties?

The plan of application of these standards in evaluating the quality of instruction by the supervisor and the teacher may perhaps be best determined through individual usage. Although there is no attempt at Teachers College High School to standardize the plan of application to the training of beginning teachers, the procedure followed by the training teachers in the various departments have in common three chief objectives:

1. Acquainting the teacher through pre-teaching demonstrations and conferences with the standards.
2. Improving the type of supervision of student teaching through the use of the standards as a means of diagnosis and guidance.
3. Developing critical self-analysis during the training period by means of the standards.

Since the standards represent common weaknesses and excellences of the teaching activity, the first step should naturally be

that of acquainting the student with the standards by which the work of the teacher may be evaluated. To be of greatest worth, this should be done before the actual classroom practice of the student begins. In this manner the student teacher is enabled to learn definitely, before the initial attempt at classroom practice begins, those acts which may lead to habits which should be encouraged and also those acts which should be avoided. Psychologically, there is little justification for the practice of introducing the student teacher into the new situation, armed with only the knowledge which has been acquired through pre-teaching courses, and left there to sink or swim depending upon the ability to apply that knowledge to specific situations.

Faulty responses made the first day of actual practice lead only to an increased load as the work proceeds—not only meeting new situations, but inhibiting faulty responses made at the outset of the work. This statement should not be construed to mean that any amount of study or memorization of the standards would automatically eliminate faulty procedure in the work of the teacher. The development of good habits is through doing—repeatedly meeting a situation with a definite response. But bad habits are formed in identically the same manner. The essential factor, therefore, is knowing which response, which procedure, is leading to good habits and which is leading to faulty habits.

This first step of acquaintance with the standards is brought about through pre-teaching conferences and the critical study of demonstration work, conducted by the training teacher, which is a part of the pre-teaching requirement.

Regardless of the extent to which the student becomes aware of the various standards, much remains to be developed

through actual classroom practice in regard to which the function of supervision is greatly aided by the use of this device in diagnosis and guidance. In this phase of the application, it should be understood that evidence will not be found relative to every item in the standards in one period of supervision or perhaps in several periods. No great amount of practice is necessary before the supervisor in observing the work of a teacher will recognize the evidences appearing in the activity, following which he may in a few minutes record on the standards the evaluation of the evidences present in the activity.

Any system of checking the standards should make possible the indication of at least four reactions with minimum effort and time: (1) no evidence, (2) satisfactory, (3) needs attention, and (4) very unsatisfactory. This has been found easily effected as follows: Before each item in the Standards are placed three periods, the failure to check any or the checking of any one of which has significant meaning regarding the particular item involved. Since not all items may be observed in several periods of observation of the work of the teacher, certain items will remain unchecked, indicating that there has been no evidence to justify an evaluation.

The three possible reactions to any item are:

1. The activity shows satisfactory evidence.
2. The evidence in the activity indicates that there is need for greater attention to this item.
3. The evidence is very unsatisfactory—concentrate on eliminating this defect.

To make a specific application of this method of marking to indicate the various reactions, the section of the Standards relative to Management is restated and marked to indicate an evaluation of an assumed teaching activity.

III. Management. Does the teacher

- . ○ . 1. Decide quickly and act promptly?
- . . ○ 2. Check attendance with economy of time?
- . . ○ 3. Begin and close class period promptly on schedule?
- . . 4. Have control of the situation at all times?
- . . 5. Have attention of all in giving directions, etc.?
- . ○ . 6. See that pupils close all books unless otherwise directed?
- . . 7. Avoid general discussion of problems of only individual interest?
- . ○ . 8. Give individual aid without disturbing others?
- . ○ . 9. Show regard for high standards of work and good order?
- . .10. Discriminate between activity essentials and non-essentials?
- . .11. Correct faults by commending virtues?
- . ○ .12. Utilize pupil aid in management?
- . . .13. Effectively organize and conduct group work?

At a glance the teacher is aware that something must be done relative to items two and three. With the greatest weaknesses fixed in mind, her attention may then be directed to those phases of the activity which are next in need of attention—items one, six, eight, nine, and twelve. The checking of items four, five, seven, ten, and eleven indicate the extent to which the teacher has shown evidences of satisfactory achievement in management. Item thirteen, which has not been checked, indicates that there was no evidence of group

or committee organization within the class and that there is no evaluation relative to that ability.

At the close of a period of supervision of any number of teaching periods, the evaluation thus developed would then be used by the supervisor as a basis of a conference with the teacher, following which a copy of the record would be given to the teacher for further study in the interest of increasing the quality of her work. These records kept by the student teacher enable her to measure and study her own progress. Similar records become the permanent record of the supervisor, by which the quality of the teaching and the progress of the teacher over a period of time may be measured.

While critical self-analysis by the teacher is being developed by the steps already outlined, it is furthered by having the teacher evaluate her work at intervals, followed by a comparison of the self-evaluation with the supervisor's evaluation.

The objective of any professionally interested teacher must necessarily be attainment to higher and still higher levels of teaching efficiency. To the professionally spirited supervisor and teacher, any avenue which will facilitate advancement is worthy of consideration. In that spirit, the device advanced in this article has been developed, applied to the actual activity of the supervisor and teacher, and is hereby presented in the interest of contributing to the increased effectiveness of the instruction offered in our schools.

A RURAL NEWSPAPER PROJECT

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Several years ago, a young man accepted an offer to teach in a small unaffiliated public school located at Manor, a small village of about one thousand people in central Texas. When he inspected the school building for the first time, he found the final examination of the second year high school English class of the previous year on the blackboard in one of the rooms. The last question of that series was, "A theme: What I Shall Think When I Receive My Grades for this Term." Of course, much might be thought on such an occasion. But what a subject for a theme! If it was calculated to inspire anything, it must have been awe. And the pupils showed the results of such teaching. The first time the teacher mentioned *theme* to them, their faces grew grave. He immediately saw that the word made no appeal to them.

There had been several small country newspapers in Manor, but they had been largely unsuccessful and eventually abandoned. A survey, however, showed that a small newspaper should succeed in the village. There were thirty-eight business establishments in the town which might use a newspaper for advertising purposes. There was a population of one thousand, and five Rural Free Delivery routes with 584 boxes. This would give the paper a maximum circulation of about sixteen hundred copies in that vicinity.

The teacher had had no experience in newspaper work, but he was interested in project teaching and was anxious to motivate his English classes. Accordingly, he outlined his proposition to the pupils the

second day of school. He proposed to assign newspaper articles as theme subjects and have these articles printed by a printing company in a near city. The expenses were to be paid by advertising space bought by the local business firms. The pupils accepted the proposition with enthusiasm. They decided to call their newspaper, *The Manor Community News*. After the staff had been selected, contracts with the advertisers and printer were made.

The pupils then began a study of what constituted news. It was decided that, generally considered, a story is valuable as news in proportion to the number of persons it interests. But this is not always true of a rural community newspaper. It should not publish articles which reflect upon the character of any member of the community. Also, it might be well not to publish an article that a particular person doesn't want published, regardless of how interesting it might be to the public. Since the paper was to be published by the school, the pupils expected to cover the news of the school as completely as possible. They discovered that among the possibilities were athletics, routine news, personal notes, parties, accidents, changes in classes, courses to be introduced or eliminated, school board meetings, new books in the library, chapel exercises, clubs, and the best themes in the various English classes. There was still another type of article that the school wished to publish. The high school was using the newspaper as an aid to the learning of English. Why not print articles that would improve the English of the entire community? People were

generally interested in good English, and the pupils felt that interesting facts concerning better English could easily be written and would be almost universally appreciated.

The next question considered was: "What shall the policy of the school be concerning editorials?" The principles discussed were condensed to include the four following essentials: (1) they must provoke thought; (2) the statements must be true and effective; (3) they must have brevity and (4) they must contain variety.

There are certain general principles to be followed in the writing of news stories. Every story must have a lead, giving the main facts, and from this lead should tail away into anticlimax. This lead paragraph should answer five important questions: Who? Where? When? What? and Why? The succeeding paragraphs should be an elaboration of the facts given in the lead. The following principles were adopted as guides for the writing of newspaper articles by the pupils: (1) Never be content to get a thing almost right. (2) Do not be satisfied with just half a story. (3) Write a story while it is still news. (4) Do not omit essential facts. (5) Keep a notebook and pencil handy.

For several weeks an attempt was made to appropriate these principles through practice. Numerous articles were written and certain ones were placed on the blackboard and criticized by the class. During this time a careful study was made of a number of the larger newspapers to see if an adherence had been made to the principles of news writing which had been learned by the pupils.

Perhaps the most interesting feature connected with publishing the school paper from the standpoint of the pupils was the assignment of the news stories. There was an enthusiasm on such occasions that one

did not find on any other day. The seriousness with which they went about the work, and the willingness with which they volunteered for the tasks, gave evidence of the genuine joy they got from the work.

It was the duty of the editor and the assistant editors to secure a list of the available news articles. To do this the editor went to the blackboard when the period for newspaper work came and called upon the class to give suggestions for news stories. These were usually found in an abundance. A group of high school pupils generally knows everything that is happening in their neighborhood, and when they have received some training in this field and are enthusiastic to secure information, they develop into remarkable reporters. Such an organization can give a rural newspaper more news than a large number of reporters working in the usual way. In addition, public school pupils give representative news from all classes of people, since all types have children in school. News about every class of people—an objective many papers do not reach—is absolutely necessary before a newspaper can make a universal appeal.

Frequently it is necessary to curb the rising enthusiasm when the assignment period begins because of the fact that several pupils may wish to contribute the same article and only one can receive credit for it. All hands are up, and the editor has to be conciliatory in order to prevent the feeling that some one is not receiving due consideration. The articles suggested are on all subjects. For example, the owner of a waving hand is recognized and permitted to contribute:

"William Swenson, who goes to the Decker School, lives near me. He was riding his black and white spotted calf late yesterday afternoon. The calf threw him. He broke his left arm between the wrist and the elbow."

"Thanks," murmurs the editor and writes, *Swenson boy breaks arm*, on the blackboard.

Thus the work continues until all the articles are listed and numbered. During the first of the year, before the pupils had been properly trained to collect news items, whenever there seemed a dearth of news, they were usually reminded of the possible sources of news by being asked if there had been any deaths near their homes, any marriages, changes of homes, births, accidents, sales, serious sickness, improvements, new buildings, socials, fires, long journeys, school entertainments, public speakings, meetings of church organizations, new methods used by farmers, unusual crop conditions, humorous incidents, or items that had appeared in other newspapers that might interest the people of the community. The elementary grades were frequently visited and this list repeated to them in order that no item might be overlooked. The suggestions were repeated slowly and the pupils given time to reflect upon them. The list never failed to increase the number of available articles. After the subjects for articles were listed, the class was asked who wanted number one. If there were several volunteers, the pupil who showed the most knowledge of the incident was assigned the story. Frequently the pupils mentioned occurrences that had happened in their own homes. In that case they usually preferred not to write the news story, but expressed a willingness to give some one all the information.

After the articles had been assigned and each pupil had at least one task, the assistant editor, who had been keeping a record of the assignments as they had been made, now read them to the class so that there might be no misunderstanding. When the articles were written, the pupils submitting them had their names checked by

the assistant editor in order that the editor might know when all the news stories were completed and that the teacher might be sure no one was shirking his duty.

Before an article was written, the pupil was required to make an outline of it. This outline was more complete than the headlines, but was prepared so that a part of it could be used for the heading later. The exact headings could not usually be written before the articles were begun because the editors could not tell at that time what the size or length of the headlines would be. This was because the relative value of an article could not usually be determined when it was written. At that time it might be the most important news available, but the next day might bring forth news that would make this news take a secondary position. Therefore, it was necessary to make the dummy for the first page on the last day before publication and at that time have the pupils write the needed headlines for their articles. Headings have a two-fold purpose: to call attention to the news article and in a sense to set it off, and as far as possible to eliminate the time element from the reading of news. The writing of this type of headlines was found to be very valuable in teaching pupils to write concise English. The usual head style in *The Manor Community News* was the pyramid of three lines for the first deck and a hanging indention of three lines for the second deck. It requires much practice and a knowledge of synonyms to express what one wishes to say so that it will exactly meet the required number of letters. Some of the pupils never learned to write headings readily. Others used their vocabulary and dictionary and enjoyed the work.

After the articles had been prepared by the pupils, they were brought to the desk of the teacher for a conference. Mistakes were indicated only and the pupil was required to show exactly what the mistake

was and to suggest a change. Corrections were listed in the notebooks of the pupils. Each repetition of a mistake increased the amount deducted for the error. In addition, the pupils were urged to have as few mistakes as possible in order that the work as it appeared in the paper might represent exactly what they had done. A certain number of articles were printed in each issue without corrections. The pupils knew of this practice, but they never knew when articles would be printed under their names with the errors they had made. Several issues were written entirely by the pupils. During the class periods on the days following publication, a search was made for errors. The corrections were listed on the blackboard and studied. Perhaps the greatest incentive to write properly came from the fact that the pupils placed their names at the head of their articles. They readily realized that under such conditions their work was open to the criticism of the public and, therefore, they did their best.

News stories lend themselves readily to teaching the four types of writing: exposition, argumentation, description, and narration. For example, after the principles of exposition had been studied in the high school textbook, the pupils were asked to write articles which would be expository in nature, and at the same time be of interest to the readers of *The Manor Community News*. This work extended over several weeks and the results showed that there was a mass of material available. The study began during the basketball season. An exposition on the changes of the rules of basketball was interesting and timely. The farmers were fearing an invasion of the foot-and-mouth disease, which was prevalent in the state, among the local herds of horses and cattle. An exposition on the disease was eagerly read by them. New courses offered in the high school were explained fully and a list of the pupils

taking the courses was printed. Chapel addresses, which usually gave the speakers' opinions of how to succeed in life, were acceptable. Generally speaking, one may say that editorials are expository in nature. An explanation of the principles of refrigeration in an article about a new ice house which was in process of erection made an interesting contribution. Notes were taken on the sermons delivered in the local churches and were widely read when written up and published. Public addresses also furnished material for expository articles. The form of the local city government was explained in detail following a city election, when the paper published the election results. When the little town began building sidewalks and grading the streets, the readers enjoyed an explanation of how the work was being done. One pupil was particularly interested in home economics. She submitted a number of her favorite recipes for the preparation of foods.

Description followed exposition and a number of interesting uses in newspaper writing were made of the principles learned from the textbook. It is a little difficult to write a purely descriptive news article, but it is rather easy to make description predominate in the news story. A number of articles were submitted which were essentially descriptive. A news story of an automobile accident, with a description of the cars after the collision, was accepted as meeting the requirements. A write-up of a picnic, which gave considerable space to the beauty of the place where the affair was held, was largely descriptive. The crowd at a baseball game furnished a bit of interesting description mixed with narration. The description of a fire made an acceptable article for publication. One pupil visited the school fair of a neighboring community. The next issue of the paper contained his

description of the exhibits. The completion of a beautiful home gave a news item and material for studying description. A special service was held in one of the local churches; the principles of description were adhered to when the interior of the church was described. The County Home Demonstrator wished to interest the women of the community in better kitchens. The use of the school newspaper was offered her as a means of describing convenient kitchens. One morning, a farmer found a strange automobile in his field. A pupil wrote a description of the car for the local paper. Later a man identified it as being the car which had been stolen from him.

Following a study of description, the high school gave its attention to argumentation. There follows a list of the subjects of articles, using the principles of argumentation, which were written for the paper:

1. The present lack of water in Manor makes fire precaution unusually necessary.
2. The need of a community newspaper.
3. Why you should advertise in the local paper.
4. Manor is the logical trade center for a large trade territory.
5. Pupils should join the Boys and Girls' Agriculture Club.
6. The advantages of the Interscholastic League.
7. Should farmers diversify?
8. Why more playground equipment is needed.

Narration was easily taught by the newspaper because most of the articles narrate events which have taken place. Space need not be used to explain how narration was studied. The previous discussion of the

other three types makes this obvious. The direct quotation was taught, also, by the interview. Various persons in the village were interviewed on subjects that were of immediate interest.

The publishing of this newspaper made an ideal project. J. A. Stevenson in *The Project Method of Teaching* (page 43), says: "The project is a problematic act carried to completion in its natural setting." Let us see if the publishing of this newspaper was a project. (1) It must be a *problematic act*. The school newspaper published at Manor was certainly a problem for the pupils. Principles had to be developed as they were needed. The situation demanded the best reasoning powers the pupils possessed. The publishing of the paper was a composite of numerous problems beginning with the inception of the idea and finishing with the payment of the last expense account. (2) It must be *carried to completion*. The pupils were required not only to suggest a solution for the problems connected with the paper, but to complete each phase of the work they had begun. Among other things they solicited advertisements, wrote them, collected the amounts due, and paid the printer. (3) It must be in its *natural setting*. The procedure of publishing this paper by the school was no different in any way from the method that would have been used by any private newspaper concern. Moreover, the pupils learned more English that year than the average classes. This was shown by the achievement tests given them at the beginning and the end of the school session. Where can a more complete type of project teaching be found than one which meets these requirements?

STANDARDS FOR THE IMPROVEMENT OF CITIZENSHIP TRAINING

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Supervision has been defined as inspection, direction, and improvement of instruction. The purpose of inspection is to determine whether instructions are being followed; of direction, to observe the activity and guide the process; and of improvement, to view the activity and suggest modifications that are likely to secure better results. The emphasis of all three phases of supervision is on results. The performances of the pupils are more important than the methods employed by the teacher. Methods are important, but their value is determined by the results they obtain. Then, to improve instruction one should modify the behavior of the pupils; and to measure the success of teaching, one should analyze the changes in the activity of the pupils being taught.

Much of our testing and measuring of the results of teaching is concerned with progress in knowledge, skills, and abilities to the neglect of habits, attitudes, and ideals. For success in a complex social environment such as ours, the latter are much more significant. No matter how capable the person as an individual, unless he can coöperate with his fellows and is willing that his efforts contribute to the welfare of the group, he cannot be called a success.

If supervision is to be most helpful, it should aim at the improvement of the habits and attitudes of the pupils. The teacher's success is measured best by this

same improvement in her pupils. This is particularly true in citizenship training.

Possibly the following standards will illustrate the point better than further discussion.

OBJECTIVE STANDARDS OF PUPIL PERFORMANCES¹

- I. Is the health, vitality, and physical fitness of pupils being promoted?
 1. Do the pupils possess an impulse to keep physically fit?
 2. Have they good habits of working, playing, eating, and sleeping?
 3. Do they relax mentally and physically at proper times?
 4. Do they assume responsibility for their recreation?
 5. Do they strive to be always cheerful and happy?
- II. Are pupils unselfish, examples in fair play and sportsmanship?
 1. Do they sacrifice themselves for the good of the group?
 2. Do they abide by the agreements of the group?
 3. Do they manifest proper regard for their opponents?
 4. Can they lose without crabbing and win without boasting?
 5. Do they do their best regardless of the outcome?
- III. Will they coöperate with their fellows?
 1. Do they carry out worthwhile suggestions of others?

¹In using the scale, a double column should be placed at the right for checking the answer to each question, "Yes" or "No."

2. Do they enjoy working and playing with others?
 3. Do they expect no special favors from the group?
 4. Do they participate extensively in group activity?
 5. Do they work as faithfully for the group as for themselves?
- IV. Are they clean-minded, moral pupils?
1. Do they refrain from using profane, vulgar, and indecent language?
 2. Are they ever coarse and vulgar in attitude?
 3. Do they constantly avoid all forms of depravity?
 4. Do they regard properly people of the the opposite sex?
 5. Do they use their influence constantly against immorality?
- V. Are they honest and upright in their activities?
1. Do they usually do what they know to be right?
 2. Do they refrain from appropriating the property of others?
 3. Do they assist in restoring lost articles to the owner?
 4. Do they refrain from using unfairly the work of others?
 5. Do they use their influence constantly against unfairness?
- VI. Do they possess self-control and poise?
1. Are they agreeable when they can't have their own way?
 2. Do they abstain from debasing and injurious practices?
 3. Are they usually pleasant under trying circumstances?
 4. Do they submit gracefully to unavoidable injury or loss?
 5. Do they sulk and answer back when reproved?
- VII. Do they possess initiative, leadership and self-direction?
1. Do they find solutions to their own problems?
 2. Are they enthusiastic about their undertakings?
3. Do they possess a high degree of intellectual curiosity?
 4. Are their achievements unusual for their age and grade?
 5. Are they tactful in getting things done by others?
- VIII. Are they trustworthy and dependable?
1. Do they keep their appointments and agreements scrupulously?
 2. Do they guard confidences that violate no principles?
 3. Do they work faithfully when not supervised?
 4. Do they return borrowed articles promptly and in good condition?
 5. Do they claim no more recognition than is due them?
- IX. Are they loyal and faithful pupils?
1. Are they true to family, friends, school, and community?
 2. Are they proud of the accomplishments of their group?
 3. Do they defend those attacked wrongfully?
 4. Do they respect the regulations of society?
 5. Do they respect the national flag and anthem?
- X. Are they truthful at all times?
1. Do they always tell the truth unflinchingly?
 2. Do they confess wrongdoing and proffer restitution?
 3. Are they usually consistent in word and deed?
 4. Do they strive constantly to give correct impressions?
 5. Is their influence a constant protest against deception?
- XI. Are they usually courteous and polite?
1. Do they avoid saying and doing things that pain and annoy?
 2. Do they refrain from making disparaging remarks about persons absent?
 3. Are they usually attentive when some one else is talking?
 4. Are they usually thoughtful in making requests of others?

5. Do they acknowledge favors graciously?

XII. Do they possess good judgment and common sense?

1. Do they weigh consequences before acting in new situations?
2. Do they accept challenges of a foolhardy nature?
3. Do they know when to seek advice and when to proceed without?
4. Do they usually depend upon their own thinking?
5. Do they question all propositions not demonstrated to be true?

XIII. Are they industrious, persevering pupils?

1. Do they usually complete difficult tasks undertaken?
2. Are they frequently absorbed in their work?
3. Do they ignore distractions and prevent mind-wandering?
4. Do they attack difficult tasks with confidence?
5. Do they find new work to do when a task is completed?

XIV. Do they get things done promptly, with dispatch?

1. Do they quickly take on the attitude of attention?
2. Do they get work done on time and well done too?
3. Are they usually alert in new situations?
4. Do they follow discussions and anticipate conclusions?
5. Is their reaction time above that of the average person?

XV. Do they possess orderliness, system and neatness?

1. Do they put things away when through with them?
2. Do they keep their desks and lockers in good order?
3. Do they follow schedules and budget their time?
4. Do they have good time senses, conscious of the schedule?
5. Are they neat and clean in dress?

XVI. Are they interested in the world's work?

1. Do they give time and thought to gainful employment?
2. Do they compare opportunities of different occupations?
3. Do they analyze requirements for different occupations?
4. Do they analyze their qualifications for an occupation?
5. Do they desire to do their share of the world's work?

The above standards were taken from the opinions of about seventy-five educational writers as to what the qualities for citizenship should be. The list of qualities was submitted to about one hundred twenty teachers and principals who rated them according to importance. The qualities were then defined by a small committee of teachers. The definitions were taken from the discussions of the educational writers mentioned before.

The purpose of such a scale is to enable one to measure the results of the citizenship teaching in a given group. One should possess an ideal standard of his own by which he will choose whether pupils are up to what he expects of them. In case they are not, he marks them in the column "No"; if they are, "Yes."

This gives definite objective pupil performances to look for and emphasizes results rather than method. Comparisons can be made between the results of different methods and programs of activity. Guessing is not so prominent if we have something definite to observe when we visit a group. It is possibly best to check only one or two items at a visit and continue in this way until all the items are checked. Teachers will likely feel better toward the supervisor who is not always interfering with their methods and requiring that particular methods be employed exclusively. Experimentation will be encour-

aged, however, if it can be shown that results are not entirely satisfactory.

This plan also calls the attention of pupils to their behavior and places the emphasis on what is really important in citizenship. It is what one does, not what he knows or could do if he were disposed to do so, that really counts in citizenship.

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THE CLEARING HOUSE

A PROJECT IN WRITTEN COMPOSITION IN THE FIFTH GRADE

A class of twenty in the upper half of the fifth grade carried on this unit of work during the period set aside for language. The children are of Sicilian parentage and in their homes little if any English is spoken. Expeditions out into the open are rare, for the parents and children tend their little stores. Children from such homes always prove to be limited in experiences and handicapped in oral and written expression. This class seemed no exception.

The teacher's problem during the one hour set aside for language under the departmental plan was how to get all of the children to participate. She knew little about them individually. Her problem proved to be in the beginning not what they said or how some said it, but to get all to say something.

Another teacher in the same school occasionally sent her pupils to this upper grade room to show their reproductions of stories they had heard or read. This fifth grade class happened to be present when these smaller children came. One of the fifth grade pupils suggested that his class ought to have a chance to go about the

school, too. Another child inquired whether, since the class came only for language to this particular teacher, it would be possible to write stories for other rooms. The teacher turned the attention of the class to these suggestions. She reminded them that big children had to do good work if it was to be read by other children. If they wanted to do something for other rooms, what should it be?

A book of class stories was mentioned. What form the book should take was another question. What about names for the book? Should the class write one book of the best stories or a weekly book containing all the children's stories of a like nature? Who was to use these books? How was the class to let other rooms know they wished to lend books? Language became the tool by which they made their wishes known. Reticent children had been stimulated and contributed with interest. The matter rested over to another meeting.

The book idea was now popular. Some children wanted to make individual books; some wanted each book to consist of every member's contribution. The majority ruled. Each week the class would assemble the stories in one book, but the teacher

promised that at the end of the term all stories would be returned to the owners. The purpose was clear. All were willing to write for the weekly book and anxious to make a book for themselves at the end of the term.

The teacher next asked the class to consider what their story books were to contain and in what form they were to be put. The second question was soon settled. The class decided that if colored paper, crayolas, and pictures could be used, a simple book cover could be made each week by a pupil of the class. The children, as it afterwards proved, knew who could do neat printing; sometimes a child who brought a suitable picture asked if he might also do the printing. These outside covers were very simple but were made on soft-toned, good quality paper. A punch and loose-leaf rings completed the putting together of the book.

The teacher's problem lay with the inside of the book. The children were asked what they usually did when they received a new book. The answers varied from those who looked for pictures to those who read the names of the stories to see what sounded like a good one. Then the children were questioned about what was a good story. Some chose thrilling ones, some amusing ones, some sad ones; some liked stories about strange or unusual happenings, others preferred to read about things to do or to make. The teacher suggested that they keep these different types of stories in mind and that perhaps at various times they might choose different kinds. She hoped to herself that their selections would include the reminiscent, the imaginative, expository, and descriptive types.

A reminiscent story was chosen in answer to what experience everyone could write about. A child happened to have a current number of a magazine, the cover of which represented a little child bidding

goodbye to his mother as a larger child stood by waiting to take him to school. The picture immediately suggested the title, "My First Day at School." The picture was later used on the cover with the printing neatly done under it.

Each child was asked to think of his entrance upon school life. The problem was genuine and universal. Next, each pupil was to formulate a good beginning sentence which was to be given orally to the class. The children had a great variety of "first days," for many had entered schools in foreign countries, some in schools of different cities, and some in the home schools. The lack of good beginning sentences was readily noticed by the teacher. But this could wait, as also many errors in language.

The class criticized the beginnings, and ways of improvement were suggested. The next suggestion of the teacher was that each child should think in three or four sentences to the end of that experience. Time was given and then many children volunteered to give their complete experience in a limited number of sentences. The plan of making a story had been suggested. Criticisms were given when children noticed errors or questioned the importance of certain statements. After such a lesson the teacher's problem was no longer to secure participation but to train the children in principles of form, sentence structure, and to eliminate gross errors in spoken English.

The fact that some children had used dialogue between the teacher and themselves, or between the mother and teacher, caused the teacher to ask if any one knew how to place such on paper. No one was sure. This the teacher then showed. The next assignment in study period was for each child to develop his few sentences into good form so as to be able to read the whole to the class for criticism.

The children were anxious to read, but the teacher with help from the class worked out on the board a program for criticizing. Every story was to be evaluated. After hearing a story, criticism was guided by the points on the board. Appreciation of a very good story gave satisfaction, while criticism of an expression or questioning of sentence structure stimulated the writer to greater effort.

There was a responsibility placed on both doers and listeners. In this first story book, "My First Day at School," the most common errors were poor sentence structure and wrong uses of the forms of verbs. It was necessary to instruct the class that verbs had a past tense, that the past tense frequently ended in *ed*, but that some other verbs were exceptions to this rule. It became necessary to distinguish between *run* and *ran*; between *eat* and *ate*, or *ate* and *eaten*. Many common irregular verbs that they frequently misused were brought up at this time. Drill was used in the answering of questions that called for the different forms. Language games aided also.

Sentence structure could not so easily be explained, although each child had a definition of what a sentence was. Each succeeding story offered opportunity for help in this work. Sometimes the class was asked to listen with a direct purpose of finding just how many sentences the reader had read. Sometimes after oral development each child was asked to write his paper, read it over, and signify at the top how many sentences he thought his story contained. Often these papers were exchanged and difference of opinion always showed the teacher where to begin on sentence work.

After the class papers had been criticized and corrected, they were rewritten on uniform sized paper, placed between the colored covers, bound together, and the book was finished.

Suggestions for another story immediately followed. The children brought in pictures also and pinned them up, hoping to have a picture chosen that would lead to a subject they wanted to write about. These pictures were subjected to criticism also, for frequently poor judgment was shown in their selections. In the choice of the second book, the vote of the class called for an adventure. The name of the book was settled immediately as "Our Adventures," but each child had to narrow his story down to some specific title, as, "Crossing the Mississippi in a Storm," "Home Proved the Best Place," or "With Amundsen in an Aeroplane," or "Safe in a Tree." Opportunity was offered here for reaching out into current events, geography, or real experiences.

The need of writing a different kind of story each week not only kept up the interest and increased the vocabulary, for children readily pick up words from each other, but it also proved especially satisfactory because in the combined effort several or at least a few times each child found the subject to be the one that he wanted to talk and write about. It was rare that the name of the book could not include some small bit of each child's experience to be made into a story.

By the time several books had been completed, it was thought advisable to lend them. Letter writing was resorted to. Four groups were to work independently during the study period to plan a letter to four different rooms. The letters were read in class by a member of each group and then the four were criticized. It was found that few children in the class understood how to write an informal letter. This delayed the class again, for another period was necessary to get each group to write a proper note to the four rooms. Those children who were chosen to write the letters were pleased that they could write

well enough to represent the class in this work.

One child was chosen to see that the books were taken to the rooms when the teachers wanted them, for in this matter the teachers all coöperated by wanting them. Occasionally the groups who read the books sent a note to the class or a representative thanking the children for the use of their books and asking for more.

The class continued in this way week after week until one term's stories consisted of thirteen books. The special holidays, Hallow-e'en, Thanksgiving, and Christmas, brought out exceptionally interesting books.

A book of fables followed the reading of the poem, "The Mountain and the Squirrel," and wherever possible the children illustrated their fable with cut-out pictures.

One book consisted of a "Health Play," the combined effort of all. This was afterward dramatized for a room that had entertained the fifth grade class.

Toward the end of the term some children suggested that they write a book of "Things We Like to Do." In three cases where they all enjoyed the telling of how certain articles of pastry were made, the children brought such articles for a party on the last day of school.

The interest of the children kept up to the end of the term and great satisfaction

was expressed upon their comparing the first and last stories, when all the papers were redistributed. The children recognized their own advancement in keeping margins and were especially pleased with their improvement in penmanship. The teacher felt that the work had been helpful in keeping the children deeply interested in their work and in the building up of better habits in oral and written expression.

The specific objectives had been to further develop the ability to write original compositions narrating an incident, a description of a person or place, an original composition explaining some activity or process; to develop a greater ability to reproduce in short paragraphs a composition developed after oral discussion; to gain skill in using punctuation; to develop paragraphs; to use dialogue in writing; and to use correct verb forms.

The outcomes of this unit of work were:

- A growing appreciation for coöperation.
- An interest in written composition.
- Greater skill in the writing of related sentences.
- A growing ability to stick to the point.
- Growth in sentence sense.
- Appreciation of a neatly written piece of work.

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AS REPORTED

DEPARTMENT OF SUPERINTENDENCE AT BOSTON

The Department of Superintendence of the National Education Association will hold its next annual meeting in Boston, February 25 to March 1, 1928. Meetings will be held in the Mechanics Building on Huntington Avenue. No hotel has been selected as headquarters. The President of the Department is Superintendent Joseph M. Gwinn, of San Francisco.

A YEARBOOK ON SUPERVISION

A committee of the National Conference on Educational Method has in active preparation a yearbook on the supervision of classroom instruction. The theme of the yearbook will be "The Present Status of Supervision." This will be presented by means of illustrations of supervisory activities and summaries of all outstanding scientific studies that are available. State and county supervisory programs, as well as the programs of cities, will be illustrated. Among the principal sections of the report will be those dealing with the administrative aspects of supervision, types of supervisory activities, methods of analyzing and evaluating classroom practice, and the experimental evaluation of supervision.

It is expected that the material for the yearbook will be fairly well in hand by the time of the next annual meeting in February, 1928. One session of the National Conference will be devoted to reports from different members of the Yearbook Committee. This committee consists of the following persons: L. J. Brueckner, Chairman; Fred C. Ayer, A. S. Barr, O. G. Brim, W. H. Burton, Alice M. Cusack, M. B.

Hillegas, James F. Hosic, J. Cayce Morrison, Mary A. S. Mugan, Helen M. Reynolds.

A COMMISSION ON SECONDARY SCHOOLS FOR THE MIDDLE STATES AND MARYLAND

With the great increase in college and university enrollment within the past few years, there has come an imperative need for an accredited list of secondary schools. To establish such a list and also to promote research for the solution of problems in secondary education, a Commission on Secondary Schools has been appointed for the Middle States and Maryland. The membership is as follows:

Dr. E. D. Grizzell, University of Pennsylvania, *Chairman*

Dean Herbert E. Hawkes, Columbia University

Dr. George W. McClelland, Vice-Provost, University of Pennsylvania

Professor Radcliffe Heermance, Director of Admissions, Princeton

Dr. L. L. Jackson, Assistant Commissioner of Secondary Education, New Jersey State Department of Education

Miss Miriam A. Bytel, Head Mistress, St. Mary's School, New York City

Dr. John H. Denbigh, Principal, Packer Collegiate Institute, Brooklyn, New York

Mr. Thurston Davies, Head Master, Nichols School, Rochester, New York

Dr. Richard M. Gumere, Head Master, William Penn Charter School, Philadelphia

Dr. William A. Wetzel, Principal, Senior High School, Trenton, New Jersey

Dr. David E. Weglein, Superintendent of Schools, Baltimore, Maryland

A central office has been established and placed in charge of the chairman. An inventory reveals the fact that there are 3393

public and private secondary schools in the territory concerned. The Commission plans to proceed at once to establish contact with these schools. Information concerning any phase of the work may be secured by communicating with the Chairman of the Commission on Secondary Schools, 109 Bennett Hall, University of Pennsylvania, Philadelphia.

SCHOOLMEN'S WEEK, UNIVERSITY OF MINNESOTA

In accordance with custom, the University of Minnesota arranged for a conference known as Schoolmen's Week, beginning April 11. The outstanding feature of the conference was the short course for principals and superintendents, which was conducted by Professors Otis W. Caldwell, George S. Counts, Earl Hudelson, Leonard V. Koos, and Principal Milo B. Stuart. Among the topics discussed were: intelligence testing, the education of women, the work of experimental schools, the size of classes, and the junior high school curriculum.

A special meeting was arranged for elementary school principals, at which the chief address was on "The Training of the Elementary School Principal," by Dean Haggerty, School of Education, University of Minnesota. The usual conference with high schools was also arranged for, with sections to accommodate the chief high school subjects.

THE BOARD OF EDUCATION FOR LIBRARIANSHIP

By means of a subvention from the Carnegie Corporation, the American Library Association is enabled to maintain a Board of Education. It has recently issued its Second Annual Report. The nature of its activities may be gathered from the following summary of progress for the year 1925-1926:

1. Inaugurated a curriculum study under the direction of W. W. Charters at the University of Chicago.
2. Planned a Summer Institute for Instructors in Library Science held at the University of Chicago, July 29 to September 3, 1926.
3. Advised in the establishment and development of Hampton Institute Library School.
4. Prepared Minimum Standards for Library Training and Apprentice Classes, which were adopted by the Council, January 1, 1926.
5. Prepared Minimum Standards for Library Training and Apprentice Classes, which were adopted by the Council, March 7, 1926.
6. Visited sixteen library schools for purposes of accrediting on the basis of the Minimum Standards for Library Schools, adopted by the Council, July 7, 1925.
7. Published the list of accredited library schools.
8. Advised in the preliminary plans for the establishment of an Advanced Graduate Library School at the University of Chicago.
9. Prepared a folder to be used by the A. L. A. Recruiting Committee, vocational guidance bureaus and counselors and others, in directing attention to education for librarianship.
10. Visited fourteen summer courses in library science.
11. Formulated for the consideration of the Council, Minimum Standards for Curricula in School Library Work.
12. Inaugurated a study of nomenclature.
13. Obtained from several institutions or foundations which award scholarships and fellowships for advanced study, the decision that applications from students of library science will be considered.
14. Laid out a program of future work which includes the accrediting of summer courses in library science, library training and apprentice classes, and courses for school librarians; the further study of courses in library science, including

correspondence courses, which may not be covered by standards already adopted; and the continuance of the study of nomenclature.

Among the actions taken by the Board is that of endorsing the recommendation of the Committee on Training of the American Library Association's Child Librarian Section, that more attention be given to the preparation of children's librarians for elementary and junior high school libraries and for library work with children and young people.

The Board is furthering in every way possible the development of adequate standards for librarians and of adequate facilities for their training. Anyone interested in the possibilities of this field may address the Committee through the Chicago office of the American Library Association. The chairman is Adam Strohm, of Detroit.

A LEADER HAS PASSED ON

WHEREAS, the fellowship of the Principals' Round Table has suffered irreparable loss in the passing of Ide G. Sargeant, and

WHEREAS, he was at all times the staunchest pillar of our professional group in upholding the highest ideal of consistent

and courageous service to the cause of education, and

WHEREAS, his was a nature of such combined sweetness and strength as to command the utmost of our love and respect, be it

RESOLVED, that we unite in the expression of our deepest sympathy for his family; in the assurance that to the extent that such a loss may be shared, we partake of their bereavement; in the hope that the knowledge of the very great place he made for himself in our hearts may to some degree serve to lighten the shadow of his going.

BE IT FURTHER RESOLVED, that these resolutions be spread upon our records, and that copies be transmitted to Mrs. Sargeant, to the *New Jersey Journal of Education*, and to the *Paterson Morning Call*.

L. H. DIX,
GEORGE I. BRINKERHOFF,
W. D. VAN AUKEN,
Committee,
Principals' Round Table.

Teachers College
Columbia University
New York, N. Y.
January 21, 1927.

THE READER’S GUIDE

DEPENDABILITY OF OUR ENGLISH MEASURES

In a difficult and important study¹ Dr. Willing has gone with a characteristic directness after one of the accepted educational dogmas and “busted it wide open.” Scientific and cautious as he is in his statements and conclusions, Dr. Willing has nevertheless clearly shifted the burden of proof upon those who believe that tests of grammatical correctness, proofreading, and the like are in any valid sense a measurement of what individual pupils will do in actual composition. In careful comparisons of the errors measured by specific tests with the scores on the same errors in the same pupils’ compositions—eight themes from each of seventy eighth and ninth grade pupils—no test was found to have a high enough correlation to be of any real validity. Apparently the best sort of measure was a proofreading test of consecutive sentences containing various sorts of errors. Nevertheless, a test of this kind was found, in a study conducted by Dr. C. W. Washburne and the re-

viewer, to have no correlation of any significance whatever with the occurrence of the same errors in composition in grades three to six.

Apparently Dr. Willing has shown quite clearly two things: First, the standard tests in English composition are to be taken with a very careful and liberal cynicism. Whatever their other uses, they are not provedly any better means of diagnosis for individual children’s work than home-made tests based on the children’s own errors and difficulties. Second, the only valid test of what pupils have achieved in the matter of form must involve the examination of their own written work.

This study, however, should be taken in careful relation to an experiment conducted by Dr. Willing and Dr. Whitman in the Lincoln School during the year in which Dr. Willing’s main study was carried through. The eighth grade was divided into two classes of nineteen pupils each, of carefully determined equal ability in composition correctness and in related matters. “Whitman taught composition

	Whitman’s Class		Willing’s Class	
	October	April	October	April
Errors in composition (Sum of errors-per-100 words)....	70.2	60.2	70.8	48.2
Scores of five compositions. Gain.....		10		22.6
General Correction of Error Test (Willing). Errors.....	96	91	96	65
(Running matter). Gain.....		5		31
Pressey Tests, combined. (Sentences). Wrongs.....	65	58	65	52.5
Gain.....		7		12.5

¹ *Valid Diagnosis in High School Composition*, by Matthew H. Willing, Teachers College, Columbia University, Contributions to Education, 1926, No. 230.

by means of weekly assigned themes (Hudelson topics) written in class, checked by him outside, and then read and criticized by pupils in class. The class time devoted to the work was approximately 100 minutes per week.

"Willing gave his class daily twenty minutes of drill work in proofreading, individualized according to preliminary diagnosis of needs. No writing was required. (The consecutive type of proofreading was a feature.) Both teachers conducted the rest of the work in exactly the same way. The experimental teaching continued from November 1 to April 1." The "experimental coefficients" indicated a high reliability for the study. This furnishes a quite useful complement to Dr. Willing's other study.

Initial and final scores as reported by Dr. Willing are shown on preceding page.

The Experimental Coefficients (see McCall) were:

- 1.0 in the case of composition correctness.
- 1.8 in the case of the general correction of error test.
- .83 in the case of the Pressey combined tests.

Apparently, whatever their value or lack of value as a means of diagnosis, such tests as may be proved valid on other counts have very great importance as teaching devices, and should be judiciously selected for use for that purpose.

S. A. LEONARD.

HOW TO USE DRAMA IN EDUCATION

The power of the dramatic appeal is well known. Indeed some define the dramatic as something with an unusually strong emotional appeal. A new account of how to utilize this force in education is always welcome. Miss Overton has both religious and secular education in view.² Evidently

her experience has been rather more with supplementary agencies than with the schools themselves. Her book will be of value first of all to religious and social workers. But it should be read by all teachers.

After noting the new interest in drama, its early phases, and its psychology, the writer comes to her subject proper, educational values and methods. By teachers of experience these last chapters, in which very specific directions are given for making and staging plays, will be first read. They constitute the specific and personal contribution the writer has to make. Those who care to follow up the suggestions offered will find references for wider reading.

YEARBOOKS AND MONOGRAPHS

One indubitable evidence of the fact that there is a growing science of education is the fact that a very large and by no means the least valuable part of the current literature in this field is in the form of reports, yearbooks, and monographs. Indeed, one of the puzzling problems of the serious student of education today is to keep up with the rising tide of such publications—to see them, gather from them what serves one's purpose, and dispose of them so that they are accessible when wanted.

In the brief series of comments here set down, nothing more is attempted than to call attention to a number of these pamphlets, in order that they may not be overlooked. Even so, anything approaching completeness is out of the question; the reader is referred to the column headed "In Paper Covers," in which will be found a reasonably exhaustive list from month to month.

First may be mentioned the yearbooks,

² *Drama in Education*. By Grace S. Overton. New York: Century Co., 1926.

whose number is increasing rapidly. The *Fifth Yearbook of the Department of Elementary School Principals* appeared in July, 1926. This is a volume of nearly 500 pages, on the equipment and activities of the principal, edited by Arthur Gist. Perhaps the most important study is that by Roy A. Crouch on the present status. This is based upon a questionnaire and contains more data than anything else now available. The other contributions are mainly reports of experience and cover a wide range of topics, from religious education to the surfacing of playgrounds. Everybody can find something that he is interested in, though perhaps not so much on a given topic as he would like.

The Department of Classroom Teachers of the N. E. A. presented in July, 1926, their first yearbook. This is devoted mainly to the activities of groups, including reports of regional conferences and reports of some seven standing committees. From the titles of these, one may infer that the Department is eager to improve the working conditions of teachers. Abstracts of the speeches delivered at the annual meeting, however, show an equal interest in improving the quality of the teaching.

The Department of Superintendence issued its fifth yearbook in February of the present year. This was the work of a large commission under the chairmanship of Edwin C. Broome and involved the co-operation of scores of school systems as well as that of the Research Department of the N. E. A. The topic is "The Curriculum of the Junior High School." The first division of the report deals with the more inclusive aspects, such as the functions of the junior high school, while the second division presents a series of sub-committee reports on the various school subjects.

The National Society for the Study of Education has been much longer at work. Its current yearbook is called the twenty-

sixth, and this does not take into account the issues of the earlier Herbart Society, from which the National Society sprang. As usual, the yearbook is in two parts, but not as usual they are on the same general topic. The first is devoted to a survey of curriculum-making, past and present. The summary of past attempts by the chairman of the committee, Harold Rugg, is pioneer work, represents an enormous amount of study, and will provide a point of departure for students of the subject for some time to come. The accounts of present activity are conveniently grouped under such heads as public schools, laboratory schools, and the like. The keynote of the volume is method—the development of a scientific procedure.

The second part of the yearbook is called "The Foundations of Curriculum-Making" and represents the attempt of a number of leading exponents of differing educational theories to get together. A summary of the principles included in this common platform is made by the chairman. After this comes a series of statements by the other members of the committee in which they suggest the modifications that would have to be made in the platform to make it accord perfectly with their views. The whole is very stimulating.

College teachers have their own yearbook, which differs from all of those so far mentioned in that it is given up almost entirely to a report in full of the papers and addresses given at the annual meeting. The current issue, the fifteenth, contains the papers of the twenty-one speakers at the Washington meeting in February, 1926.

Very creditable indeed is the recently published yearbook of the National Council of Teachers of Mathematics. The title is "Curriculum Problems in Teaching Mathematics." Elementary school, junior high school, and senior high school are all represented by writers from both school

and college. The contributions are mainly papers rather than reports of specific investigations, but the whole is well organized and shows the handiwork of the editing committee, of which W. D. Reeves was chairman.

From time to time reports appear that were made possible by grants from foundations. The California Curriculum Study, directed by W. C. Bagley, is an example. A survey was made to discover conditions and the state of public opinion as a basis for recommendations looking to remedial legislation. It was found that by legal enactment the schools had been overburdened, and accordingly it was proposed that the number of recognized subjects that should be taught in the common schools should be reduced to twelve, with science and the practical arts optional. The failures of pupils and their causes were canvassed and a series of chapters prepared to show how the various subjects may be so handled as to reduce failures and gain the best results. The discussion is supported throughout with carefully prepared tables and graphs setting forth the main facts uncovered.

The means for this investigation were provided by the Commonwealth Fund. From the same source the School of Education of the University of Chicago has for some years obtained money to enable the preparation of a series of scientific monographs, notably those on reading. Recent numbers of these monographs contain psychological analyses of arithmetic, diagnostic studies in arithmetic, and investigations of the curriculum by Professors Judd, Buswell, and Bobbitt respectively. The studies in arithmetic were carried on by means of apparatus for measuring eye movements, those in the curriculum by students, who examined periodicals, newspapers, the encyclopedia, and other sources for evidence as to typical human interests.

All of them are foundational rather than immediately practical.

Among the other monographs recently appearing are Miss Streitz's exposition of a technique for developing the subject matter of safety education in the elementary school, published by the National Bureau of Casualty and Surety Underwriters; Mr. Heck's *Study of Child-Accounting Records*, a bulletin of 250 pages, issued by Ohio State University; excellent accounts of how the auditorium is utilized in the schools of Kansas City by G. W. Diemer, and in Gary by John G. Rossman; a selection of significant passages from current writings on improvement in the teaching of reading, by Miss Kramer, of the Bureau of Research in Baltimore; *Creative Effort*, being Volume VII of *Studies in Education* by the Frances W. Parker School in Chicago, a record of actual work in the school; the *Report of the Thirteenth Annual Conference on Educational Measurements* at the University of Indiana; and the *Educational Yearbook of the International Institute of Teachers College for 1925*, an account of progress in education in some fifteen countries, together with essays on the curriculum in Germany, England, and the United States—the whole edited and in large part translated by I. L. Kandel.

There are many others worthy of special notice, but the examples cited must suffice to indicate how important the monograph type of the literature of education is and to call attention to contributions that cannot well be overlooked by anyone who is striving to keep pace with the latest developments.

SIGNIFICANT ARTICLES

ENVIRONMENT AND EDUCATION

The current number of *Progressive Education* is devoted to the topic, "The Environment for Creative Education." This

is a most attractive number, being copiously illustrated with photographs of children in typical activities of the progressive schools. In the leading article, Mr. Yeomans calls attention to the fact that until recently the element of adventure was almost wholly lacking from the schools. This lack is being so rapidly made up that even a great explorer like Columbus or Magellan would find himself at home. The writer pays his respects to the doctrine of education for leadership by saying that "leadership will come or not by the grace of God." His interest is in making life a significant and enlightening experience for the great majority.

THE SOCIAL STUDIES IN THE FIFTH AND SIXTH GRADES

In the *Elementary School Journal* for April, Professor George A. Mirick gives an excellent example of the sort of searching analysis and criticism which the reports of committees on education should be subjected to. He takes for his text that portion of the report of the Curriculum Committee of the Department of Superintendence which deals with the Social Studies, and takes exception to the attitude of the committee as being altogether too pessimistic. He points out that the committee has set up a definite aim for the study of social sciences by children, namely, that they may learn the art of getting along with people. By reference to such recent publications as the bulletin on "The Teaching of Geography, History, and Civics," issued by the State Department of Education, New Jersey, he shows how this ideal is carried into specific application. He finds, however, that in general the present course of study in geography for the fifth and sixth grades is self-contradictory. The units of study provided are not suitable to carry out the aims set up. This may be avoided if the

essential theme of the work of the grade is kept clearly in mind. The focusing idea of Grade 4, for example, is the home. The study of world geography, therefore, in that grade should be centered in a study of home life of various countries in comparison with that of our own.

TEMPORARY AND PERMANENT VALUES IN THE CURRICULUM

Writing in the *Chicago Schools Journal* for April, Professor Ernest Horn brings into sharp distinction two different conceptions of the curriculum, namely, the child's present needs in contrast to the needs of adult life. He feels that the oppositions commonly supposed to exist between these two considerations is largely illusory. Recent studies of vocabularies, for example, show that the essential words in adult use are for the most part the very words which children themselves have occasion to use. He concludes that in making courses of study in spelling, for example, both the permanent value of the word and its present usefulness should be taken into account. In general, preference should be given to those units of subject matter in the school course which are of value not only to the pupil at the time but also in later life. The problem of enriching the child's life at each stage of his development is a principle of grading rather than a principle of ultimate selection.

IDEALS OF JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOL PUPILS

As indicating the widespread present-day interest in the curriculum, the *Journal of Educational Research* for April presents an article by Professor L. A. Williams in which the writer sets forth the results of a study of ideals among junior high school pupils. The pupils were asked to write a list of twenty-five men and women whom they thought of as leaders either in the past or in the present. They were re-

quested to tell why each might be considered a leader. The total number of different persons who might have been named was 11,225, and the actual number named was 7183—an amazing range of choice. The reasons for choice covered a wide field but might have been classified under the following heads: home, church, state, business, school, and personal. The writer thinks it significant that only a small number was named under this last head. Sex differences were negligible, that is, the boys named almost as many women as the girls did. The influence of textbooks was evident, with an encouraging shift from war to peace. The choice of movie actors and actresses was unexpectedly limited. The author concludes that although the study was only tentative, nevertheless it is encouraging as to the possibility of building up ideals in the junior high school by presenting representative leaders in different walks of life.

DISCIPLINE ONCE MORE

An instructive summary of the principles of good discipline will be found in *Teachers Journal and Abstract* for April. The writer, Professor Harry S. Ganders, presents the merits of freedom as contrasted with coercion in the discipline of the classroom. After referring to the fact that the outstanding weakness of teachers is generally understood to be failure in discipline, and suggesting ten advantages of good discipline, including economy of time, better teaching, and development of moral character, he shows that “freedom to choose is exactly the opposite of discipline by force.” Historically we have fluctuated from one of these types to the other. In practice it is probably best to utilize each as may prove appropriate. Coercion, for example, may be used (1) when the limits of time demand it; (2) when it is the only way to prevent imminent serious

injury; (3) when every reasonable effort has been made to control the individual by freedom to choose and without effect; (4) when the use of the other method would cause pupils to lose respect for the teacher. The method of freedom to choose should be used as far as possible, however, in order to preserve the pupil’s self-respect, give him practice in selecting correct modes of behavior, develop independence and self-reliance, and preserve a freer relationship between pupils and teacher.

WORK FOR THE PARENT-TEACHER ASSOCIATION

The question is often asked, “What can the Parent-Teacher Association best do for the school?” One answer is given by Miss Mildred R. Williamson in *School Life* for April. She proposes a program of “promotion of child health as a vital parent-teacher activity.” Her article is made up for the most part of specific illustrations of what has been done in different parts of the country. In Los Angeles, for example, medical care has been given in health centers under the auspices of the Los Angeles Federation of Parents and Teachers. In San Pedro, California, the parent-teacher associations maintain a health center. In Kansas City, Missouri, the Parent-Teacher Council coöperates with the Social Hygiene Committee of the Health Conservation Association in supplying lecturers, as well as nurses and physical directors in health programs.

Parent-teacher associations of Memphis and Shelby county, Tennessee, provide for examination of all children before they enter school. The National Congress of Parents and Teachers now sponsors an annual summer round-up to see that all children about to enter school are properly inspected, and has adopted May Day as rally day for its health program. At present twenty-eight states have coöperated

by appointing chairmen to have charge of the summer round-up.

A PROGRAM OF DEMOCRATIC SUPERVISION

The main factors in a democratic program of supervision are clearly set forth by Mr. B. T. Thayer in the *Educational Research Bulletin* of Ohio State University for April 27. The outstanding need in education, says the writer, is for "a specialized supervision, a type of supervision in which the instruments of science are directed toward the realization of the democratic aim of education." In practice the supervisor must deal with the teacher on various levels in accordance with their needs. His success will depend in part upon his own ability to teach. He will do well to secure concentrated committee work upon definite problems and a pooling of results. He should provide a clearing house of information and should utilize the social and educational agencies outside the school.

The administrative phase of supervision must not be overlooked. The schedule of the teachers must be such as not to work a hardship upon them. A margin of time should be left for their professional growth. What the supervisor does in the way of stimulating professional activity on the part of the teachers will provide the best means for his own development.

THE NEW BOOKS

Poetry of To-Day—An Anthology. Edited by Rosa M. R. Mikels and Grace Shoup. New York: Scribner's Sons, 1927. Pp. 304.

College Composition. By Howard B. Grose, Jr. Chicago: Scott, Foresman and Co., 1926. Pp. 679. \$2.00.

Standard Service Arithmetics—Grade Three. By F. B. Knight, J. W. Studebaker, and G. M. Ruch. Chicago: Scott, Foresman and Co., 1926. Pp. 391. Illus. \$.80.

Speaking and Writing English. By Bernard M. Sheridan, Clare Kleiser, and Anna I. Mathews. Pp. 159. Illus. \$.68.

Instructional Units in Woodfinishing. By R. A. McGee and Arthur G. Brown. Milwaukee: Bruce Publishing Co., 1927. Pp. 128.

Health Supervision and Medical Inspection of Schools. By Thomas D. Wood and Hugh G. Rowell. Philadelphia: W. B. Saunders Co., 1927. Pp. 637. Illus.

Horace Mann New Third Reader and Daily Lesson Plans. By Walter L. Hervev and Melvin Hix. New York: Longmans, Green & Co., 1927. Pp. 282 + cci. Illus. \$1.50.

Picture-Story Reading Lessons, Series II. By Nila B. Smith and Stuart A. Courtis. Consisting of: *My Story Book*; pp. 154; illus.; \$.68. *Dictionary*; pp. 96; \$.48. *Teacher's Manual*; pp. 221; \$1.00. *Word Cards*; per set, \$1.68. Yonkers, N. Y.: World Book Co., 1927.

The Texas Ranger. By James B. Gillett and Howard R. Driggs. Yonkers, N. Y.: World Book Co., 1927. Pp. 218. Illus. \$1.20.

Tests and Measurements in High School Instruction. By G. M. Ruch and George D. Stoddard. Yonkers, N. Y.: World Book Co., 1927. Pp. 381. \$2.20.

What's Wrong with American Education? By David Snedden. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co., 1927. Pp. 379. \$2.00.

My First Book. By Bessie B. Coleman. Newark, N. J.: Silver, Burdett & Co., 1927. Pp. 32. Illus. \$.24.

Two Lectures on the Development and Present Position of Chemical Analysis by Emission Spectra. By F. Twyman. London: Adam Hilger, Ltd., 1927. Pp. 43. 2s. 8d. postpaid.

The Polarimeter. By Vivian T. Saunders. London: Adam Hilger, Ltd., 1927. Pp. 31. 1s. 7d. postpaid.

- A New Approach to American History.* By D. C. Bailey. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1927. Pp. 82. \$1.50.
- Chemistry and the Home.* By Harrison E. Howe and Francis M. Turner. New York: Scribner's Sons, 1927. Pp. 365.
- An Anglo-Saxon Reader.* By Milton H. Turk. New York: Scribner's Sons, 1927. Pp. 431.
- The Teaching and Supervision of Reading.* By Arthur S. Gist and William A. King. New York: Scribner's Sons, 1927. Pp. 348.
- The Modern Student's Library: *Selections from Lincoln.* Edited by Nathaniel W. Stephenson. Pp. xlix + 404.
- Tales of Edgar Allan Poe.* Edited by James S. Wilson. Pp. xxv + 525. New York: Scribner's Sons, 1927.
- Geography—Europe and Asia.* By Harlan H. Barrows, Edith P. Parker, and Margaret T. Parker. Newark: Silver, Burdett & Co., 1927. Pp. 280. Illustrations and maps.
- Classical Myths That Live Today.* By Frances E. Sabin. Newark: Silver, Burdett and Co., 1927. Pp. xxv + 348 + xlv. \$1.92.
- The Nervous Child.* By Hector C. Cameron. Third edition. New York: Oxford University Press, 1924. Pp. 233.
- Modern Plane Geometry.* By John R. Clark and Arthur S. Otis. Yonkers, N. Y.: World Book Co., 1927. Pp. 310. Illus. \$1.36.
- Among the Danes.* By Edgar W. Knight. Chapel Hill: University of North Carolina Press, 1927. Pp. 236.
- Academy Classics for Junior High Schools.* Edited by Stella S. Center. New York: Allyn and Bacon, 1927. Scott: *Quentin Durward*; edited by Mabel A. Bessey; pp. 584; \$1.00. *Stories of Adventure*; selected and edited by Max J. Herzberg; pp. 414; \$1.00. Cooper: *The Last of the Mohicans*; edited by Ernest C. Noyes; pp. 417; \$1.00. *Great Speeches*; selected and edited by Elizabeth W. Baker; pp. 253; \$.80. Cooper: *The Pathfinder*; edited by Marietta Knight; pp. 382; \$1.00. Shakespeare: *Henry the Fifth*; edited by Samuel Thurber, Jr. and A. B. DeMille; pp. 358; \$.65. Doyle: *The White Company*; edited by Mabel A. Bessey; pp. 500; \$1.00.

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- Studies in Education.* Yearbook No. XV of National Society of College Teachers of Education, 1926. University of Chicago Press, 1927. Pp. 205.
- Bulletins of Purdue University, 1926: *The Purpose and Function of the Division of Educational Reference*, by F. Dean McClusky. Vol. XXVI, No. 10. *The Preparation in English of Purdue Freshmen*, by Herbert L. Creek and James H. McKee. Vol. XXVII, No. 6. *The Report of the Student Committee of Seventeen.* Vol. XXVII, No. 7.
- Instructional Tests in Algebra.* By Raleigh Schorling, John R. Clark, and Selma A. Lindell. Yonkers, N. Y.: World Book Co., 1927. Pp. 72.
- A Graphic View of Our Schools.* By Frank M. Phillips. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1927. Pp. 64.
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- A Study of the Value of Supervision in Consolidated Schools.* By Maycie Southall. Raleigh, N. C.: State Supt. of Public Instruction, 1925. Pp. 38.

- The Personnel, Preparation and Programs of the High-School Teaching Staff of Louisiana.* By Stuart G. Noble and V. L. Roy. Baton Rouge, La.: State Dept. of Education, Educational Pamphlet No. 14, December, 1926. Pp. 57.
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- Curriculum Problems in Teaching Mathematics.* Second Yearbook of National Council of Teachers of Mathematics. New York: Teachers College, Bureau of Publications, 1927. Pp. 297.
- Maryland's Educational Progress, 1920-1926.* Baltimore, Md.: State Dept. of Education, Maryland School Bulletin, Vol. VIII, No. 9, February, 1927. Pp. 19.
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- Annual Report of the General Education Board, 1925-1926.* New York: 61 Broadway. Pp. 65.
- The American University and its Relation to American Progress.* By Thomas W. Lamont. New York: Ronald Press Co., 1927. Pp. 16.
- Citizenship Training in Elementary Schools.* By Ellie M. Marx. Norfolk, Va.: Henry Clay Home and School League, 1926. Pp. 134.
- Bristol Group Reasoning Tests.* By A. Barbara Dale. Forms A, B, C, and Manual of Directions. London: University of London Press, Ltd., 1926.
- The Silent Reading Hour—Primary Book.* By Guy T. Buswell and William H. Wheeler. Chicago: Wheeler Publishing Co., 1926. Pp. 30. Illus. \$.12.
- Psychological Analysis of the Fundamentals of Arithmetic.* By Charles H. Judd. University of Chicago, Supplementary Educational Monographs, No. 32, February, 1927. Pp. 121.
- Proceedings of the Thirteenth Annual Meeting, Missouri State School Administrative Association.* Columbia, Mo.: University of Missouri Bulletin, Vol. 27, No. 41. Pp. 109.
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- Teachers' Manual to Social Arithmetic, Book One.* By Frank M. McMurry and C. Beverley Benson. New York: Macmillan Co., 1927. Pp. 46.
- Report of a School Building Survey of Danville, Ky.* By Floyd W. Reeves, Dale Russell, and Maurice F. Seay. January, 1927. Pp. 32.
- Modern Plays for School Use.* By Frances Tobey. Greeley, Colo.: Colorado State Teachers College Bulletin, Series XXVI, No. 3, 1926. Pp. 29.
- Physical and Health Education in the Lincoln Schools.* Lincoln, Neb.: Report No. 9 of the Superintendent of Schools, January, 1927. Pp. 35.
- What is the Future of the Day Nursery?* By Grace Abbott. New York: American Child Health Association, 370 Seventh Ave. Bulletin, Vol. III, No. 2, February, 1927. Pp. 30.
- Survey Report, New Prague Public Schools.* By Fred Engelhardt. Minneapolis, Minn.: University of Minnesota Bulletin, Vol. XXX, No. 2, January, 1927.
- Hob o' the Mill.* By Grace T. Hallock and Julia Wade Abbot. Chicago: Quaker Oats Co., 1927. Pp. 111.

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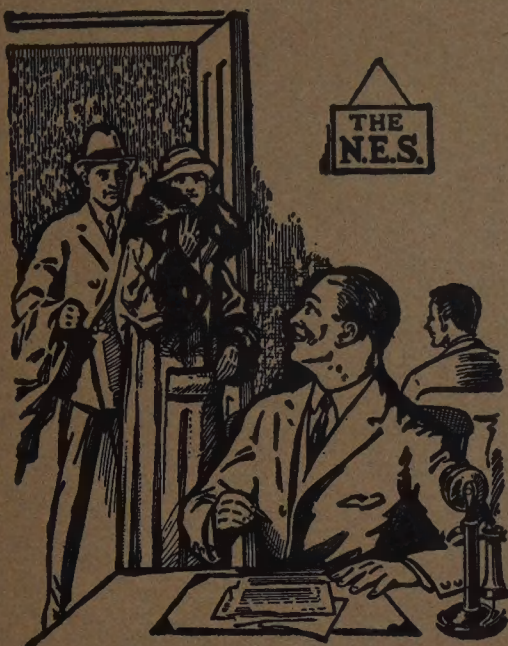
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